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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 8, 1900.

The Week.

If each man of intelligence and discernment who voted on November 6 were asked what issue it was that gave victory again to the Republican party by such decisive majorities, he would say that it was the fear of business disturbance in case Mr. Bryan should be elected. Whether such fears were well founded or not, whether they were prompted by the threat of free coinage at 16 to 1 or by the spectacle of Mr. Bryan as an ogre attacking the foundations of society generally—that was the decisive influence which controlled the great mass of doubtful voters. Time after time has it been proved that there are enough men unfettered by party allegiance to turn the scales in any election. This was shown in the campaigns of 1884 and 1892, when the Democrats put forward a candidate who commanded the confidence of business men. The result proved in both instances that when they planted themselves on such sure foundations, they had at least an equal chance of carrying the country. They had the same chance this year. It is idle to speculate what would have been the result if they had nominated Richard Olney, or Charles S. Fairchild, or some man of that stamp. It is sufficient to say that they would not have been beaten at the start. With such a candidate they would have been gaining, instead of losing, votes all the time, and would have been in better heart from day to day. The Republicans never could have organized the Sound-Money parade against such a candidate. All business men would have felt the same confidence in either contingency.

The most significant feature of Tuesday's election is the terrible rebuke to Bryanism which has been administered by the States between the Alleghanies and the Pacific. In New York and New England, McKinley majorities have fallen off notably from those of 1896, largely owing to the fact that four years ago the old Democratic organization in this part of the country was practically disrupted by the action of the Chicago convention, whereas since then a new one has been built up which took measures to get voters to the polls. In 1896 Tammany here and the McLaughlin machine in Brooklyn only "went through the motions" of a canvass, while this year both have made a real fight. In Connecticut four years ago the Democrats were in utter despair; this fall they were hopeful of electing their candidate for Governor, and thousands who stayed at home before, voted the whole party ticket on Tuesday. But west of New York, save as the exceptional conditions in Chicago reduced the Republican plurality in Illinois, Bryanism has shown itself far weaker in 1900 than in 1896. The McKinley pluralities have increased in the Middle West; States beyond, like Kansas and South Dakota, which supported Bryan the first time, have rejected him the second; the Bryan pluralities have fallen off tremendously in all the silver States; and the Pacific Coast is emphatically against the Democratic-Populist candidate.

The comparatively small plurality for Bryan in the Borough of Manhattan is a sharp rebuke for Croker. When one remembers that the old city of New York gave the Democratic candidate for President more than 76,000 plurality in 1892, and that a vigorous campaign was made for the Democratic-Populist nominee this year, the fact that Bryan has received less than 30,000 plurality, against the 85,000 which Croker was claiming just before election, must impress even the Tammany boss. Still more impressive in some aspects is the evidence that the Democratic candidate for Governor has suffered severely from having owed his nomination to Croker. Odell runs behind McKinley, of course, because tens of thousands of Democrats voted for the Republican electors, but such Democrats should have supported their party's candidate for Governor if he had not been objectionable. The fact that Odell does not run so far behind McKinley in 1900 as Black did in 1896, proves that many Democrats decided to rebuke Croker for his refusal of the nomination to Coler by voting against a Democrat who was objectionable only because he had lent himself to this scheme.

"McKinley's reëlection will end the war in the Philippines." This has been the burden of endless Republican speeches and soldiers' letters. Col. Roosevelt himself has assured us, with painful iteration, that the Democratic party and Mr. Bryan are alone responsible for the continuance of the fighting, and has asked our ballots on the ground that to vote otherwise is to strengthen the hands of the "rebels." Meanwhile we hear from no less distinguished a statesman than Mr. Perry S. Heath, recently Assistant Postmaster-General, and during the late campaign in charge of the Republican National Committee's "literary bureau," that Col. Roosevelt and all the leading Republican speakers and newspapers have wholly misled us. On the strength of a notice published in the Madrid organ of the Filipino junta, Mr. Heath asserts that the Philippine Assembly has resolved to surrender its arms the instant it hears of Mr. Bryan's election, in order to demonstrate that its forces are not fighting against the North American republic, but against the Imperialists. "However, if unfortunately Mr. McKinley should be reëlected," this manifesto goes on, "the war will be continued for four years . . . unless he should meanwhile recognize our independence." Naturally Mr. Heath sees the hand of Mr. Bryan and the Democrats in all this. "It most assuredly shows the alliance between the Filipinos and the Bryan leaders," he told the reporters, adding that his literary bureau would give this document a "very wide circulation." To the intelligent reader, the whole incident is an illuminating example of the extremities the Republicans have been driven to, in their vain efforts to cover up their complete and melancholy failure in the Philippines, and to suppress the truth as to the situation in the islands.

Still another competent foreigner has just given striking testimony as to the completeness of this failure. Mr. de Bérard, the French consul at Manila, has made an official report to his Government, in which he confirms the views of John Foreman and others that the situation of the Filipinos is worse than it was under the Spaniards. Not only has the splendid future predicted by the Americans in 1898 not come to pass, but agriculture is paralyzed, and such industries as have not been ruined cannot now be pursued. The great mercantile houses, M. de Bérard reports, have been unable to transact any business for a year, the tariff regulations weigh more heavily than ever, and the country is "overrun by a band of adventurers who have come to exploit the people." Europeans should not establish themselves except at Manila, Cebu, and Iloilo; other places are unsafe. But to console intending traders, M. de Bérard says that in eighteen months' rivalry for the commerce of the Philippines the Americans "have not yet succeeded in conquering the ground which they expected to capture almost entirely without difficulty." In sending this report to the editor of the Indianapolis *Sentinel*, M. Valary, a French publicist, writes that he sees no way out of the Philippine muddle for the United States except a treaty of peace on the basis of a protectorate, without any political obligations on the part of the Filipinos, who should, however, give special trade rights to the Americans. This, he thinks, would not detract in any way from American prestige and honor. In the light of these revelations; how pitiful are Mr. Heath's

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efforts to shield the Administration he serves by throwing the blame upon men who declare that they would end the existing situation if they had the power!

The *Evening Post* printed on Friday some statistics collected by its Washington correspondent as to the percentage of discharges for disability in our army on foreign service, which should not be overlooked by any one seeking to get at the true cost, in human terms, of our Imperialistic ventures. Ever since the fighting in the Philippines began, the *Evening Post* has published every Monday as complete a table of the losses in battle and from sickness as could be compiled from the official dispatches. But neither the total deaths, 2,939, nor the number of soldiers reported wounded, 2,451, comprise all the men disabled, especially as most of the wounded recover sufficiently to return to duty. It now appears that of the regular army more than 3½ per cent. were discharged invalided during the year ending June 30, and less than one per cent. of the volunteers. The small percentage of the latter troops is without doubt explained by the fact that the first of them did not reach Manila until August, and the last not until February, so that they were exposed to the Philippine climate for only a comparatively short time. Now that the rainy season is on, the percentage is rapidly increasing, as is shown by the fact that the last three transports to sail from Manila carried 1,000 invalids bound for home hospitals and early discharges. Moreover, officers who have served in the Philippines say that the vitality of a regiment as a whole sinks with each month, and that the longer the regiments stay, the less power they have to resist the inroads of disease. To repair this constant waste, more and more men are sent out to death or disability. Two transports this very week are carrying nearly 1,000 men from this port.

Gov. Roosevelt is a fresh illustration of the dangers which beset a politician with a literary past. The latest thing of his own to be flung in his face is an extract from his life of Benton, in which he emitted the perfectly characteristic opinion that, "in the long run, a Quaker may be quite as undesirable a citizen as a duellist." Malevolent Democrats had been circulating this among Quakers in the doubtful States. What could the Governor do—recant or reaffirm? Neither, but mix the two. Observe, he writes to the troubled Quakers, that the sentence you complain of was "written fifteen years ago," and though no man must say that I have "altered my convictions in the matter," "were I now to rewrite the sentence, I should certainly so phrase it that it could not be construed as offensive to the Society of Friends." In other words, when I wrote it, I never dreamed that I should live to be in need of Quaker votes. This is a dying fall almost as graceful as the one the Governor executed in the case of another extract rising like a ghost out of his dead past to confront him now. In a magazine article he had said, with gay abandon, that the cowboy, even when drunk, was a more interesting companion than the "ordinary farmer or artisan." Several ordinary farmers and artisans in the West wanted to know what he meant by that. Why, said the ingenuous Roosevelt, that was written before I had formed my present extensive acquaintance among farmers and artisans, and found out what an extremely fine class of citizen (each with his vote) they are. Bryan might envy such supple dexterity. But in the blunt, the forthright, the fearless Roosevelt, it does look a little odd.

Mr. Park Benjamin, himself a graduate of the Naval Academy and a writer of standing on naval topics, is the latest to fall foul of the results of the Roosevelt Naval Personnel Bill. In the current *Independent*, he takes Rear-Admiral Melville's warning of danger to the navy from incompetent engineers as his text, and pays his respects very warmly to what he calls the "No Naval Engineers" scheme. Like the Chief Engineer of the Navy, Mr. Benjamin finds that the bill has put "ex-engineers on the bridge and in the pilot-house," and that there are now "no engineers in the engine-room." He makes light of Rear-Admiral Melville's suggested remedy of giving the junior line officers engineering instruction, by asking how this can be done when "actual need keeps almost every man of them at sea continuously." While declining to help haul the discredited advocates of the union of the line and engineers out of the mire they are in, Mr. Benjamin thinks that they may find it best to organize another engineer corps. It would be interesting to hear from Gov. Roosevelt on the failure of the amalgamation, as Mr. Benjamin refers to him and Capt. Evans as the men who gave the "impelling impetus" to the reorganization committee. Gov. Roosevelt, he says, wanted to settle "right here and now" a problem as old as himself. In the meantime, it is plain that the navy engines are falling into the hands of a substitute, underpaid, and inferior engineer corps of non-commissioned officers, called "warrant machinists."

Greater New York's budget of expenditures for the year 1901 approaches the one-hundred-million mark, which it is in a fair way to pass in the near future. The proposed expenditure of $98,100,413.43 during the coming fiscal year amounts to more than $30 per capita. Interest upon the city's debt, and redemption and instalment charges combined, amount to $22,432,379.23, and this exceeds any other item in the budget. The expenditure most nearly approaching it is that of the Department of Education, $18,512,817.69. The per-capita debt charge (interest and sinking fund) in the present budget is almost exactly $7, or 23 per cent. of the total charge. It would be difficult to make any extended comparison with expenditures in past years, owing to the reorganization of the city under its new charter, but an increase of more than seven million dollars in one year indicates that municipal expenditures in this city are still increasing rapidly. In the current number of the *Popular Science Monthly*, Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff illustrates what he calls the "tremendous advances of municipal government" during the present century by two budgets for Philadelphia, one in 1800 and one in 1899. The per-capita expenditure increased during this period from 97 cents to $27.76, due mainly to the fact, thinks Mr. Woodruff, that the city now "does more for the citizen than it did one hundred years ago." The city certainly has more to do now than it had then, but, unfortunately there is abundant evidence that not all the increase in municipal expenditure, either in this city or in Philadelphia, represents better public service or "more done" for the citizen. It represents more men on the pay roll for doing each thing.

That a civil war can rage for a year in a South American republic, involving casualties to the number of thirty thousand, and gain only the slightest attention from our press, is a striking comment on the word Pan-American. If the usurping Vice-President of the Colombian Republic had been a Melanesian prince, if the fierce partisan fighting that has taken place along the Caribbean had been transferred to the Red Sea, it would have been a case for double heads and special correspondents. As it is in our own hemisphere, the return of a Minister or trader brings us the news a month or so late. This time it is the United States Minister to Colombia who comments on the situation. The usurping President, Marroquin, has been recognized by all the Powers except the Papal See, though San Clemente, forcibly deposed last July, still asserts his claim to the Presidency. Meanwhile, each draws a President's salary, and, as the Liberal rebellion wanes, the Presidents are the freer to fight it out undisturbed, with the odds in favor of Marroquin. Such is a season's news from Colombia; all which suggests that, when the smallest kind of an Asian punitive expedition is "news," and the largest kind of a South American revolution is not, Pan-Americanism is, in the late Senator Ingalls's words, "an iridescent dream."

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Sir Robert Giffen brought out in a recent address some striking facts about civilized "expansion," past and to come, as against that expansion among savage peoples in which, we are told, lies our only future hope. A century ago the population of European countries and nations of European origin was not more than 170,000,000. To-day it is 500,000,000. If the forces which have brought about this great increase persist for a hundred years, our descendants will see a civilized population of 1,500,000,000 or more. In view of such an outlook, what becomes of the "Yellow Peril"? It will have vanished by mere force of numbers. And what a growing possibility of new markets we shall have at our own doors, as this peaceful expansion goes on! We are compassing sea and land and violating all our traditions and principles to find new customers among black and yellow races, when the doubling and quadrupling of demand from advanced races is going on before our eyes.

The most valuable part of the letters of Dr. Morrison, the Pekin correspondent of the London *Times*, is that in which he gives extracts from the official publications of the Chinese Government during the siege of the Embassy. About these there can be no mistake. Dr. Morrison may be prejudiced in his opinions; it would be strange if a man could be wholly without bias against people who had been shooting at him for forty days. Sir Robert Hart's extreme pessimism about the future of China may, similarly, be a result in part of having been under fire and on short rations for so long. But what appeared in the official *Gazette* of the Government is the *litera scripta* which remains beyond dispute, and it is indeed a terrible exhibition of the duplicity and treachery of the responsible authorities at Pekin. After reading them, no one can doubt that it was the deliberate purpose of the Dowager Empress, or whoever was in supreme control, to expel or kill all foreigners, and to give native Christians the alternative of recantation or death. Direct encouragement of the Boxers is shown. Baron von Ketteler was murdered on June 20, but no official cognizance of the crime was taken until July 18. On that day an imperial decree recited the killing, and said: "Suddenly meeting this affair caused us deep grief. We ought vigorously to seek the murderer and punish him." A very late repentance, and a tardy resolve which, it is needless to say, was never carried out. Perhaps the finest example of a Chinese state paper is the decree published on August 2 (the relieving forces in sight). It spoke of the "disturbances" in and about the capital, and proceeded: "It was a duty to protect the envoys of the foreign states residing at Pekin, and the Princes and Ministers of the Tsung-li-Yamen addressed frequent letters to them, inquiring after their welfare." These letters may have been enclosed in the bombshells which the Princes and Ministers also frequently addressed to the envoys.

The reports of German brutalities in China, which continue to appear from day to day, are not surprising in view of the Emperor's bloodthirsty speeches and Germany's record as a colonizing Power. Only the other day Lieut. Prince Prosper von Arenberg was resentenced to fifteen years' imprisonment in a fortress for the peculiarly atrocious murder of a half-breed in German South Africa on the suspicion that he was an English spy. Nor is this an exceptional case. One after another, Germany's officials in her oldest colony have come home to be punished more or less lightly for inconceivably cruel crimes committed upon native men and women. Reports from Kiao-Chou do not indicate a much more sympathetic treatment of the Chinese who have come under German rule against their will. The truth is, that the magnificent German army is a machine built up on blind obedience and brute force. It is practically impossible to punish a cruel officer unless he commits murder, and their complete power over their men leads to inevitable moral deterioration on the part of the officers. The whole spirit of the army—of militarism at its height—is a menace to the development of the people along lines of civilization and humanity, and its results alone are a fearful price to pay for the satisfaction of having a better army than some other nation. When officials trained in this school are placed in authority over the bodies and souls of dark-skinned peoples thousands of miles from the social, legal, and moral restraints of the Fatherland, there is only one outcome to be expected.

Aside from the need of shortening sail, which a man at Lord Salisbury's age must feel, there is an excellent reason, in the nature of the case, why he should no longer unite in his own person the two offices of Foreign Secretary and Premier. Too much power of too momentous a character is put thereby into the hands of a single man. A Foreign Secretary is bound to consult the Prime Minister; but this has been, with Salisbury, merely letting his left hand know what his right hand doeth. There remains, of course, the sovereign, without whose consent not even the Premier would venture on any far-reaching measure of foreign policy. Queen Victoria has always taken a keen interest in foreign affairs. When the inner history of her reign comes to be written, it will be found, we believe, that her opinion and influence in many a crisis have been decisive. Just what part she played in averting war between France and Germany in 1875 is not known, but it was a great one. The Queen, however, is now aged, and necessarily unable to follow the details of foreign complications with her former attention and judgment. Thus it has come about that the most important questions touching the relations of Great Britain to other countries have practically been left for one brain to decide. Salisbury may consult his Cabinet, or may not. His reference of affairs to the Queen is more and more perfunctory. It is his single hand which has held all the threads. This is a dangerous power for any man to wield under a Constitutional Government, and Lord Salisbury is wise in surrendering it. Of course, as Premier, he will really retain control of British foreign policy. The Marquis of Lansdowne, the new Foreign Secretary, will submit all major matters to the Prime Minister, who will thus rid himself of the dust and drudgery of the Foreign Office without, however, divesting himself of the right of ultimate decision.

Lord Salisbury's service at the Foreign Office has been long and varied. When he first took the position in 1878, resigning the office of Secretary of State for India, Lord Lytton wrote him from Calcutta, "I feel sure you are destined to be one of England's greatest Foreign Ministers." This might have passed at the time for the language of flattery. Lytton's style scarcely needed an Oriental touch to make it exuberant. But the prophecy does not seem so far wrong when we look back at it after twenty-two years. Salisbury's first period of Russophobe activity is, indeed, rather melancholy in the retrospect. He himself has frankly confessed that England "laid her money on the wrong horse" in all that business. But he was the man who told her how to lay it. In recent years, however, particularly during his latest term of office, he has some particularly brilliant and at the same time beneficent achievements to point to. His old friend the Turk thwarted him in the Armenian affair, and it will always be a blot upon his reputation that he gave Chamberlain so free and reckless a hand in the South African dispute; but, when all is said, Salisbury's agreement with France and Germany in all that respects the future of Africa, his better understanding with Russia in the Orient, crowned only now by the Anglo-German agreement concerning China, show diplomacy at its highest and best. In none of these far-sighted arrangements has Lord Salisbury been a Jingo, or a raw-head-and-bloody-bones Englishman. He has, in fact, repeatedly spoiled the plans of the Forwards and the Fighters of his own party. He has labored for peace and the future, and, in so far, has been of the number of statesmen whose work will abide and be their best memorial.

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END OF THE CLOSE SEASON FOR BOSSES.

From the day the nominations are made until the day the votes are cast and counted, it is against the law in the United States to hunt bosses. At any rate, their chase is suspended during that period as if it were illegal. The most enthusiastic and determined hunter of the *Boss Americanus* hangs up his rifle while the Presidential election is pending. Platt goes, for the time, unwhipped of the *Tribune*. Croker is courted and lauded and fooled to the top of his bent by the great ones of his party, from the candidate down. It is the close season for bosses, with none to molest or make them afraid.

The immunity which they enjoy for this brief period is not unnatural. It is the time when the American people resolves itself into a committee of the whole to solicit votes. No man's vote is despised. Strike, but vote for me, is the motto of every candidate, of all parties. The ballot, once in the box, does not smell of blood. How to get the larger number there is the sole question. And the boss, as presumably the mightiest vote-compeller, bulks large in party plans and hopes. Both parties, even while they hate him, consult and flatter him in this their hour of need. This is but human nature—political human nature. Besides, there is a reason in the nature of political effort why the bosses should, through this time of electoral intentness and absorption, be left unvexed. We cannot attack all questions at once. To insist upon solving all political problems at the same time has been said to be the political vice of the French people—the secret of the sterility of their political struggles, the failure of their Parliament. Our way is to divide and conquer. One at a time, We will attend to you later—are American political watchwords. It sometimes happens that the smaller vermin can be destroyed along with the larger; but usually we have to suffer the local and partial evil, even allowing it to increase, while devoting ourselves to the extirpation of the universal evil. But it is only a truce. Both Tammany and "Tom" will find that the peace without honor which they have known for six months past is a precarious and fleeting joy. Their close season ended on Tuesday. Directly the boss became again fair game, and the hunt will reopen with greater vigor than ever.

It must not be supposed, however, that the bosses have left these undisturbed months of theirs unimproved. While ostensibly working for their respective parties, they do not in reality abandon for one moment their great principle of working for their own pockets all the time. Who supposes that Platt is at all concerned for the reëlection of McKinley, except as it may result in strengthening his clutch on the Republican machine in this State? Who doubts that Croker's ostensible activity in Bryan's cause is only his way of masking his plans for his own pecuniary and political aggrandizement? What they are giving their time and strength to is not work for party, but for their personal machines. The plots they are incubating we shall see hatched and full-fledged now that the election is over. Just what they are, no man can now say; but that they will cause an outcry, both within and without their own parties, we have not a particle of doubt.

It is a part of their regular plan of operations to extract the most unexpected and astonishing "mandates" out of an election in which their side has been successful. The people of this city may think that they are voting in favor of one or another national policy; but they will soon learn from Platt and Croker what they really meant by their ballots. Platt's expected "mandate" is only foreshadowed dimly as yet. His oracles are usually dumb until after election. But he has let us see a part of what he will gravely assert the people intended him to do with the power they have intrusted to him. There will be, he has said, a State Constabulary Law if the Legislature is turned over to him bound and gagged. By a State Constabulary, Platt means the control of all the police force of all the cities in New York, under a State Commissioner named by the Governor—that is, by Platt. What a monstrous measure this would be, devised solely for building up a political machine, we need not now stop to argue. At present we merely point out that this is a part of the "mandate" which the McKinley voters were, all unwittingly, to give to Tom Platt. The remaining contents of the mandate will appear later, as it may be convenient for the boss to unfold them. As for Croker, his mandate is concealed from nobody. He merely asks for fourteen Congressmen to make him a power at Washington; all the Assemblymen and Senators from Greater New York to make him a dictator at Albany and throughout the State; and such a renewed hold on this city as will enable him to cry out, with Blücher, as he surveys the accumulated wealth of New York, "Was für *Plunder!*"

One thing, however, the boss never learns by experience. That is, that his corrupt intrigues never gain respectability by an apparent victory at the polls, and that his personality remains as odious in triumph as it is contemptible in defeat. So if Platt and Croker have surprises in store for us after election, we also have the old surprise awaiting them. They will find that they are not autocrats. Revolt will spring up against their tyranny even in their own party organizations. "If the fleas were of one mind, they would have us out of bed." This was the saying with which a veteran English Parliamentarian used to comfort himself. Rascals cannot hold together. Already the signs of disruption in Tammany are visible and threatening. Many of Platt's victims are writhing ominously. The war against both is certain to be resumed with new intensity and implacability. So let them not dwell in a fool's paradise, or think that the public estimation of their character and doings will be reversed by the election. Henry George's avowed purpose, if elected Mayor, to clap both of them in jail, will never cease to be a pious desire with the right-minded.

THREATENED NAVAL INCREASE.

President Hadley's statement that American Imperialism began with the construction of battle-ships some ten years ago, has attracted no little attention from the press. As with individuals, so with nations, it is often enough the first step which costs. We have, in these columns, maintained from the first that the possession of a large modern navy would carry with it the strongest kind of temptation to use it at the expense of weaker nations, and we see nothing in the events of the last two years to cause us to change our opinions. We are glad to observe that such influential independent journals as the Boston *Herald* and the Philadelphia *Ledger*, and Republican newspapers like the Philadelphia *Bulletin*, are not afraid to ask whether it is not time to call a halt in the acquiring of war-ships, now that the growth of the navy has reached the size demanded by those who believe in the necessity of a strong fleet for defence.

The modernization of the United States navy began in 1883, since which time it has grown with great rapidity. Up to that year it had consisted of some twenty-five or thirty wooden cruisers left over from the Civil War, apparently quite sufficient for the patrolling of the seas, the safe-guarding of Americans in China and elsewhere, the protection of American interests during South and Central American revolutions, the destroying of derelicts, and the mapping of the coasts and sea-bottom. It does not appear that the prestige or honor of the country or the safety of American citizens abroad suffered in any way during the years 1866 to 1885—the era of a small navy. In 1884 the personnel allowed by law consisted of some 1,425 active officers, 7,500 men, and 750 boys. In 1896 the enlisted men and boys numbered 10,000, and by 1900 the figures had risen to 21,550 officers and men, the Marine Corps having meanwhile grown to 6,000. During the war of 1898 the laws were disregarded, and nearly 8,000 more men were enlisted than had been authorized by Congress. In 1884 the cry was that

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there were not enough ships for the men. In 1900 there are not nearly enough crews for all the vessels built or building, despite the doubling of the navy's quota, and there is a loud demand for more, which is expected to make itself felt in Congress this winter. During this period the appropriations have grown in still greater proportion, as is shown by the following table:

1884	$15,980,437 80	1893	$23,013,752 56
1885	9,242,496 82	1894	20,779,407 08
1886	21,689,759 39	1895	24,679,914 41
1887	17,053,780 59	1896	28,236,956 02
1888	23,525,483 79	1897	29,836,066 46
1889	19,553,438 82	1898	32,574,082 43
1890	22,456,113 48	1899	107,816,468 06
1891	24,015,586 19	1900	41,892,707 43
1892	31,427,544 94	1901	55,623,422 30

In the same period there were added to the navy list seven battle-ships and forty-five monitors, cruisers, and gunboats, as well as nineteen torpedo-boats. Furthermore, the war with Spain led to the purchase and retention of about thirty vessels which were converted into cruisers and gunboats, and sixty or more colliers, supply ships, and tugs, while twenty-four more war-ships of all sizes, from the *Reina Mercedes* of 3,090 tons, to the little *Sandoval* of 100 tons, were captured or purchased from Spain. In addition to this great increase, there are at the present day under construction or authorized by Congress eleven battle-ships, six armored cruisers, nine protected cruisers, four monitors, and thirty-eight torpedo-boats and destroyers.

To the average citizen who has the fear of foreign invasion at heart, it might well seem that this force would suffice to prevent European armies from landing on our shores, and European navies from capturing our towns, particularly if the vast system of army coast defences be taken into consideration. Upon the construction of harbor forts and batteries many millions have been spent since 1889, and, while the end is certainly not yet in sight, Secretary Root has already asked for 18,000 men as the minimum force required in time of peace to man and care for the guns already in place.

But the Naval Board of Construction is by no means content with all this. On the ground, it is said, that the American navy must equal in size the fleet now planned by the German Emperor, the Board calls for the construction of three battle-ships, three armored cruisers, and perhaps twelve or more gunboats. This is merely a fraction of the increase to be authorized by Congress in 1901. It might have been greater, but we are informed that the construction of these ships will tax the capacity of our shipyards to the uttermost. For this reason the Navy Board may have been magnanimously moderate in contenting itself with rivalling Germany. Perhaps in the course of the next two or three years, if public sentiment is not aroused against further increase, we shall learn that we must surpass Japan or Russia. Nor must the fact be overlooked that our new insular possessions furnish a reason for lavish expenditure as being a great source of military weakness to us. Hawaii, the Philippines, and Porto Rico are now used as arguments for more ships, naval stations, and coast defences by some of the same men who, but the other day, declared that outlying points thousands of miles beyond our coasts were necessary for the protection of our harbors and cities and a source of strength.

It is plain that the time has come for the American people to discuss soberly and earnestly the question of our future naval policy, and to decide whether we are to assume the crushing burdens of a huge navy. Those who believe that the smallest possible fleet consistent with defence is the true American limit, will agree with the Philadelphia *Ledger* that the policy of running a race with Germany, France, or England is "sheer folly and dangerous folly," and "an excuse for saddling the country with war taxes." Those who believe that anything which makes for war is a step backward in civilization, should not fail to protest, in season and out of season, against any further expenditure for military or naval purposes. They can meet any charge of lack of patriotism by replying in the words spoken by William Everett in Congress in 1895, that "the United States is too great, too noble, too modern to sink herself to the level of the military nations of the ancient world." He spoke but the truth when he said that the true American enemy lies in our great cities, and that our first duty is to "train, to educate, to guard, to raise, to assimilate" their population.

THE FUTURE GOLD SUPPLY.

Although there has been much discussion of the Gold Standard in the present campaign, hardly anything has been said about the present or future supply of that metal. In the controversies of previous years, one of the arguments most stoutly insisted upon, and no doubt honestly maintained, was that the world's supply of gold was insufficient, and that the decline in the prices of commodities which had been continuous since 1873, was due to a shortage of metallic money consequent upon the demonetization of silver. Professor Suess of the University of Vienna affirmed, upon geological grounds, that the world was nearing the end of its gold resources, that the South African supply would soon be exhausted, and that then we should be in the presence of a financial and industrial crisis of great magnitude. When the German Government was considering the question of calling a new Monetary Conference, it invited Dr. Suess to Berlin to give the reasons for his opinion in detail, which he did.

This inquiry took place in 1894. Six years have passed since the learned professor gave his testimony, which, by the way, was eagerly welcomed on this side of the water and was put in active service in the campaign of 1896. And what have we witnessed since 1894? The world's gold production in that year was $181,175,600. Four years later (1898) it had risen to $287,428,600. The annual product had increased more than $100,000,000 in that short space of time, and nearly all the increase had come from veins in rock formation having the promise of more or less permanence —differing in that respect from the placer mines of California, Australia, and Siberia, which gave such a remarkable output about the middle of this century.

Prof. J. S. Newberry, a most competent authority, writing twenty years ago, said that fully nine-tenths of all the gold possessed by mankind had come from placer deposits. At the present time, much the larger share of gold produced comes from veins in which gold is held in a matrix of quartz, or in combination with other substances from which it is separated by chemical means. In other words, the production of gold has been revolutionized within comparatively few years. The means for its extraction from the earth have been improved in as great ratio as the means for making steel rails, building fast steamships, printing newspapers, propelling street cars, or doing any other thing by modern machinery. We not only have got a larger supply of material to work on than ever before, but have a vastly improved apparatus to work with. The results are correspondingly great. The highest rate of yearly production in the fifties, when the California and Australian placers were at their maximum, was $134,000,000, or less than half the annual output at present.

The largest gold-producing countries in 1898 were:

Africa	$80,428,000	Mexico	$8,500,000
Australia	64,860,800	India	7,781,500
United States	64,463,000	All other	22,093,200
Russia	25,463,400		
Canada	13,838,700	Total	$287,428,600

The production of the States and Territories of the United States for the same year was:

Colorado	$23,195,300	Arizona	$2,465,100
California	15,637,000	Utah	2,285,400
So. Dakota	5,699,700	All other	4,534,300
Montana	5,126,900		
Nevada	2,994,500	Total	$64,463,000
Alaska	2,524,800		

It is the opinion of the best judges that the statistics of gold production fall considerably short of the truth, because much gold is brought out of the ground that escapes any kind of record. The amount stolen in mills and sold clandestinely is estimated at 10 per cent. in the Transvaal. In Siberia, where a tax is imposed on gold mining and where there are abundant facilities for smuggling it across the Chinese frontier, the amount that escapes the statistician is estimated at 20 per cent. There is no means in the United

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States of taking account of gold found by individual prospectors. If they have any reason for concealing their gains, they cannot be forced to disclose them. Many Chinese laborers who have worked over old and abandoned diggings or have washed in river beds where the returns are too small to tempt white laborers, have gone back to their own country, taking their gold dust with them, of which no report has been made. This process is still going on in both the United States and Canada.

The supply of gold in the immediate future will come from the places which now furnish the largest output, the Witwatersrand of South Africa, Cripple Creek, Colorado, the various Australian deposits, the Klondike, Alaska, and Siberia. There are still large placer deposits in California, formerly worked by hydraulic apparatus, whose operation has been suspended or crippled by the difficulty of impounding the tailings or detritus, which was formerly allowed to flow into the river-beds and thence over the adjoining land, to the ruin of agriculture. The receipts from the Klondike have risen to $16,000,000 the present year, and from Cape Nome and other Alaskan points to upward of $2,000,000. The whole amount from the North is likely to be increased to $20,000,000 before the close of the season.

The reasons for the increased production of recent years are new discoveries of ore beds, new mining and metallurgical inventions, and better facilities of transportation. The decline in the price of silver and its demonetization have turned the attention of the mining fraternity, to a considerable extent, from that metal and stimulated the hunt for gold. There is not the least reason to suppose that we have come to the end of great finds of the metal or of new inventions for extracting it. There are probably just as extensive and just as rich deposits in the world, yet untouched, as those of the Comstock, the Transvaal, Cripple Creek, the Klondike, and West Australia. The financial and industrial crisis due to a shortage of the yellow metal, so confidently predicted by Professor Suess and others a few years ago, is so far distant that nobody need borrow trouble over it.

RICH MEN AND DEMOCRACY.

I have been reading with much interest Goldwin Smith's pamphlet entitled 'Commonwealth or Empire,' reprinted by the Anti-Imperialist League from the Toronto *Globe*. I was particularly struck by what he says of the growing alliance between the English Tories and the American multi-millionaires, and the resulting attempt to give a popular endorsement to the policy of a "chocolate éclair" like McKinley, to use Roosevelt's phrase. But I must remind Professor Smith that the growth of the multi-millionaire class in America, and its effect on society and politics, were foreshadowed more than sixty years ago by De Tocqueville, in his 'Démocratie en Amérique.' As I am writing at a distance from my books, I am unable to recall his exact words, but he points out, at considerable length, the tendency in all democracies, and particularly in the American Democracy, for the rich and energetic and successful to seek to escape from the common mass by setting up little organizations, or clubs, composed of persons who are or think themselves distinguished. This tendency began to show itself after the end of the civil war, in 1865, by the formation of such organizations as "The Sons of the Revolution," "The Society of Colonial Wars," "The Colonial Dames," "The Daughters of the Revolution," "The Society of Mayflower Descendants," "The United Order of Pilgrim Fathers," "The St. Nicholas Society of New York," "The Holland Society of New York," and "The Huguenot Society of America." I suppose the first suggestion of these things came from the "Cincinnati," although the "Cincinnati" was gravely disapproved of by some of the best men in the country, after the Revolution.

Tocqueville points out the extreme improbability that the rich men, in any democracy based on equality, will be long content to share the common lot. In a money-making community, the rich and the energetic would be sure to accumulate large fortunes, and would consequently very soon begin to look upon themselves as a class apart, entitled to be "exclusive." This prediction began to be fulfilled very soon after the civil war. Owing to the immense natural resources of the country, and the tremendous and inexpensive additions made to the population by immigration from Europe, Northerners at least began to grow rich, hand over hand. Fortunes such as Europe had never seen in any rank began to abound among American business men. At first there was a ludicrous difficulty in spending these fortunes, but it soon passed away. Just at the same time, the new engines made the passage of the Atlantic so quick that a trip to Europe, which used to take place only once in a lifetime, became a summer excursion, and the making of it became a sign, in every American village, that a man had succeeded in life. The result of this was a great increase of social intercourse between the wealthy classes of both countries, and a complete change in English feeling toward America. Americans in England, from being looked on with dislike and contempt, became great favorites in English society, and welcome at all the great English houses, for Englishmen like "the smell of money." All their faults were eagerly overlooked in view of their wealth, admiration of which was greatly increased by the astounding size of American fortunes, and there was a rush of American heiresses to marry English titles. There was one bitter drop in the American cup, however, and that was that we had no coaling stations, no colonies, no subject races; in short, that we were not a "world Power." There was deep humiliation over this, in London ball-rooms and at dinner-tables, and our rich men determined to put an end to it. Washington and Jefferson we became a little ashamed of, and the Declaration of Independence became, as in the days of slavery, a mass of "glittering generalities."

In order to inaugurate the new republic, a syndicate of rich men selected a candidate for President that would suit them, who had no convictions of his own; paid his debts, and got him ready for the office; and were successful under the pretence of danger to the finances. He answered the purpose admirably. He "put his ear to the ground," treated the Constitution as a dead letter, annexed large provinces on the other side of the globe, appointed a full line of viceroys and warriors of his own choosing, doctored their communications with home, treated subject races as vermin, and very soon enabled our wealthy men to hold up their heads as a "world Power" in England, and put an end to all nonsense about freedom and equal rights. If their movement should succeed in getting endorsement at the approaching election, I believe it will be the most skilful conversion of a republic into an empire of the many that have taken place.

Every republic runs its greatest risk not so much from discontented soldiers as from discontented multi-millionaires. They are very rarely, if ever, content with a position of equality, and the larger the population which is said to be equal with them, the less content they are. Their natural desire is to be a class apart, and if they cannot have titles at home, they wish to be received as equals by titled people abroad. That is exactly our present position, and would be the end of the American dream. All past republics have been overthrown by rich men, or nobles, and we have plenty of Sons of the Revolution ready for the job, and plenty of successful soldiers deriding the Constitution, unrebuked by the Executive or by public opinion. To make matters worse, the universities have largely followed the multi-millionaires, and a tap on the shoulder, a flattering word, or a free trip round the world, is enough to make many a college president swallow his own words, and preach doctrines of devils to the young men and to the world. This fact has been strongly and ably commented on by President Pritchett, a notable exception, in his inaugural address at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in Boston the other day. In fact, there has not been a more complete abandonment of the cause of the plain people, by the rich and the learned, in modern times. I care little for either the Democratic or the Republican party, but I am concerned for the perpetuity of the American commonwealth, and for "the good old cause" everywhere, "the cause for which Sidney died on the scaffold, and Hampden died on the field," to use the language of a distinguished Englishman; a "cause ever dear to the wisest, the bravest, and the best, unfelt and abandoned only by the recreant and the vile."

E. L. G.

THE PARLIAMENTARY ELECTION IN ENGLAND.

AN ENGLISH VIEW.

OXFORD, October 23, 1900.

The general election is over; its results are as well known at New York as in London. With these I will not trouble the readers of the *Nation*, nor have I the least intention of dwelling on the personal or on the merely party aspects of a struggle which leaves behind it, even among the supporters of Lord Salisbury's Government, an impression of dreariness. What I should like to do,

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if possible, is to impress upon the American world two or three reflections suggested by the general election, which, in so far as they are well founded, have a permanent interest.

Nothing, in the first place, is more curious, or may turn out to be of greater political importance, than the fact, which the election makes patent, that the strength of the Government lies in London and the boroughs, and the strength of the Opposition in the country districts. Anything in the world, as we all know, may be proved by figures, but no man who has not a mad passion for paradox can deny that, in England at least, the towns on the whole support Unionism and Imperialism, while such strength as the Opposition derive from England is to be found in the country, and especially among the country laborers. What makes this the more noteworthy is that it is the sign of a singular revolution in opinion. Some forty, even some fifty, years ago the towns were the stronghold of Liberals, the Conservatives derived their strength from the voters in the counties. It would take a far longer letter than the *Nation* would wish to print to explain, even hypothetically, the causes of this singular change in opinion. It is worth while, however, to note a result which the existing state of things is likely to produce. It will, in the long run, make Conservatives far less hostile than they have hitherto been to certain democratic changes. The formation of equal electoral districts would, we may be pretty sure, increase the power of the towns and therefore of the artisans; but if the towns and the workmen who live there are inclined to support the sort of policy which approves itself to modern Conservatives, there is no reason why Conservative statesmen or their followers should oppose a reform or an innovation which is at once democratic and likely to increase the power of the Conservatives, and (what is pretty much the same thing) the political predominance of England in the Parliament of the United Kingdom.

The general election, in the second place, is said, and I presume with truth, to have interested in a very unusual degree the inhabitants of our English colonies. That this should be so is perfectly natural. For the first time within the memory of any man now living, a general election in England has turned upon a colonial question. The prominence, not to say the predominance, of Mr. Chamberlain is due in great part, no doubt, to personal qualities, but it arises also from his position as Colonial Secretary. The war in South Africa was carried on with the aid, and was supported by the sympathy, of the leading English colonies, and it was natural, not to say inevitable, that the Minister specially concerned with colonial policy should attract an amount of attention which has never before been aroused by any Colonial Secretary. What may be the outcome of the new interest felt by Englishmen in the colonies, and by our colonists in the policy of England, it were extremely rash to prophesy. Relations sometimes get on the better for seeing very little of one another, and to meddle actively in a man's affairs is by no means always the way either to gain or to retain his affection; and though one may fully believe, as the present writer certainly does believe, that in the long run the policy which insures the welfare of England must also be the policy which insures the welfare of England's colonies, to assert and believe this is a very different thing from asserting, what no reasonable man can believe, that at no time and under no circumstances can there be at any rate an apparent collision between the interests of an English colony and the interests of the mother country.

However this may be, it is, in the third place, absolutely certain that at the present moment the majority of Englishmen and Scotchmen are, in the political slang of the day, "Imperialists." To estimate the force, at any rate for the moment, of Imperialist sentiment, a candid critic must do something more than count up the relative numbers of the Ministerial majority and of the Opposition. He must note the potent fact that Imperialism has invaded, some Liberals would say has infected, the Opposition itself. For my present purpose it is absolutely unnecessary to decide how far the Imperialism of the so-called Liberal Imperialists is genuine, or to a certain extent factitious. If it be, as is probably the case, to a great extent genuine, then we cannot escape from the conviction that Imperialism—by which I mean the deliberate desire to increase, or at any rate maintain, the unity of the empire and to increase its power—is shared by the vast majority of the men, whether Conservative or Liberal, who are sent to Parliament by British constituencies. Nor, in spite of the violence of Irish rhetoric, is it easy to believe that the Irishmen who crowd into the British army and supply some of the best-known of our generals and the bravest of our troops, are indifferent to the glories of the empire. If, on the other hand, it is to be assumed that many members of Parliament, whose Imperialism has insured their election, are at bottom very indifferent to a policy which it is very difficult to harmonize with the tone of the Liberalism that was predominant forty or fifty years ago, then we must assume that the politicians who avowed opinions which they hardly shared, were thoroughly convinced that the electors, at any rate, were thoroughgoing and ardent Imperialists.

And this brings us to the root of the whole matter. A most singular change has gradually come over the whole tone of English politics. Men who have not long passed middle age can well recollect the time when even Tories thought the colonies a burden which England was bound in honor to bear, but which she might with advantage get rid of whenever she could do so without discredit. We all of us know now that a Minister who proposed to curtail the limits of the empire would not long remain in office, and that the belief of the day is, that the maintenance and the extension of the empire constitute both the glory and the strength of England. This belief, like many other opinions which have had immense influence in their time, may be erroneous. All I insist upon is its existence. Let me add further that the growth of Imperialism is merely part of a much larger change in the current of public opinion. It is simply one aspect of the renewed faith in the benefits to be conferred upon the world by the intervention of the state. But here I must stop. On some future occasion I hope to point out some, at least, of the conditions which have caused or favored a revolution in opinion as remarkable as any change which has taken place during the nineteenth century.

AN OBSERVER.

AN IRISH VIEW.

DUBLIN, October 20, 1900.

Nationalist Ireland has pulled itself together in a wonderful and, to most, an unexpected manner. Gradually, through difficulties and complications, order has, at least for the present, been evolved out of chaos. Two or three years ago, William O'Brien, from his cottage on the shores of Clew Bay, founded a "United Irish League." Its objects appeared to be mainly agrarian—the lowering of rents, the bringing back of the people upon the expanses of grazing land which they or their fathers once tilled. This organization at first made but slow way; it was confined to western counties, and stood a safe butt for those who believed the era of effectual agitation was at an end in Ireland. The Irish parties in Parliament, through their divisions, weakness, and incapacity, had become a by-word, even in Ireland, where the cry of "no politics" was beginning to be more and more heard—the youth of the country turning to national ideals, literary and religious, rather than political. Such was the position when, at the beginning of last session, the Irish parties in Parliament, to the astonishment of all, reunited under the chairmanship of Mr. Redmond. Mr. Healy, largely responsible for the confusion that prevailed, gave nominal adhesion to the arrangement. Subsequent events have gone far to prove that he can scarcely have been sincere—that his policy continued to be to paralyze the proceedings and hopes of the united party as he had those of that to which he had nominally belonged. A convention met in June under the presidency of Mr. Redmond. The Parliamentary party coalesced with the United Irish League, whose branches began to spread rapidly over the country. Funds came in but slowly, and the ascendancy party still confidently hoped at the anticipated elections considerably to lessen, if not to extinguish, the majority of Home-Rule representatives from Ireland. We Irish politically are a strange people: our alternations of lassitude and frivolity, buoyancy and grim earnestness, are enough to wear out the most enthusiastic leaders and alienate the best of friends of a cooler and steadier temperament. The general election was sprung upon the country. Ireland awoke, and in the course of a fortnight ample funds were placed at the disposal of Mr. Redmond and a Central Election Committee. The old plan was abandoned of sending down candidates from headquarters, who, "without inquiry or murmur, were accepted by the constituencies." Popularly constituted conventions met in most of the electoral districts, and moneys to support the candidates there chosen were supplied from the common fund. Where conventions did not meet, or where they came to no decision, and where Nationalist opposed Nationalist, the candidates were left to fight it out between themselves. Some districts such as Wexford held aloof, had their own conventions, and fought their own fight.

The Irish Home-Rulers return to Parliament in their old strength—82 out of the 103 representatives from Ireland. Two seats were lost—Derry and Galway; two won, in Dublin and its county. Many of the old stagers disappear, some of them, indeed, no loss. Thirty new faces will show themselves on the Irish benches. Time only can tell what Mr. Redmond will be able to make of the material placed at his disposal. The

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return of some few of the old and some few of the new is to many a surprise and disappointment, and little to the credit of the constituencies that selected and returned them. In one instance the selection so patently outraged all decency that the Central Election Committee insisted upon the substitution of another name. Mr. Redmond's own estimate is perhaps on the whole fair: "No doubt there may have been some mistakes. In the election of eighty-two members by democratic methods . . . it is perhaps inevitable that some mistakes should occur. My own belief, however, is there were very few—far fewer than occurred in the old days when candidates were sent down from headquarters." It none the less takes some robustness of political experience and some clearness of political insight to accept, as for the best upon the whole, many of the selections. The old puzzlement of choice between "measures" and "men" has often been present with us. Are unworthy instruments who will vote as we consider right upon great questions, to be preferred to instruments more worthy for the settlement of details, who will vote wrong on great questions? (Happily at Westminster there is little or no danger of injury accruing to public interests by monetary corruption.) If only unworthy instruments are in some electoral divisions available or selected, can those principles be right that repel men of a different character? And would it be safe to extend the circle of responsibilities in a community where a proportion of weak and, in a few cases, unworthy representatives are put forward? The answer to such questionings is to be found in the history and experiences of Ireland. Her social and political condition is abnormal. "Culture and respectability" have played too little part in forwarding and obtaining those great reforms which all now acknowledged to have been necessary and to redound to the stability of the state. "Culture and respectability" are in Ireland more than ever before taking their part in sympathetic efforts for the good of the people. Until their convictions of what is best politically are accepted by the people at large, until the people draw them to their side, or until there is an interfusion of sentiment. the position of affairs in these respects will continue out of joint. And then again, in Ireland outward appearance and manner and bearing count for too little, and in England for too much.

Upon the other hand, there has, within the last few months, been displayed upon our political stage much that is of best augury for the future. Seldom has there been shown greater individual self-abnegation. John Dillon, the undoubted choice as leader, if the wishes of the majority only were to be considered, has slaved to strengthen the prestige and position of John Redmond, his former opponent. Many a candidate rejected by a convention has turned to the support of more successful compeers. Many a widow's mite has been cast into the treasury.

As between Parnellite and anti-Parnellite, the fusion appears complete. The contest (and it has in a few constituencies been bitter) within the National ranks has been between those who desire unity of action and the party of Mr. Healy. The former have been triumphant. Mr. Healy stands almost alone. I have already referred to his policy; whatever may be his intentions, the carrying out of his plans could not end otherwise than in the disintegration of the Irish representation. Perhaps despairing of the accomplishment of Home Rule, he has sought the practical good of Ireland in the breakdown of agitation and the nationalizing of the Government as it stands by manning the executive of the country with Catholics and "Nationalists." He relied mainly on clerical influence. The monetary harvest the Church has garnered through these years of political stagnation little inclines many of its members to desire a return to days when funds would inevitably revert into political channels. The Irish are sincerely religious and intensely Catholic. They will not be otherwise, at least in our era. In these elections they have shown themselves as well inclined as any other people to draw a line between the degree of allegiance they owe to their clergy in regard to mundane affairs and those of the world to come.

In relation to the all but annihilation of the Healy party in Parliament, we are afforded singular proof of the incapacity of many English journalists to understand Irish affairs. Amazement is expressed why such men as Arthur O'Connor, Maurice Healy, and T. D. Sullivan, who all voted Home Rule, and who are all educated and refined gentlemen, ornaments to the House, useful members of committees, have been rejected, and men like —— and —— and —— returned. Simply and solely because Ireland has learned by bitter experience that the individual respectability of her representatives has availed her little in the past, that a united party is her only chance, and that such men as those above named were opposed to united action.

As premonitory of the United League movement and the return of a united party hardening into an agitation likely to be seriously embarrassing to the Government, nothing has struck me as more ominous than the speeches made by Mr. T. W. Russell, a prominent Unionist, Parliamentary Secretary to the English Local Government Board, in his election campaign in North Tyrone. Two or three years ago, when the last Land Act was passed, he came over to his constituents and told them openly they should consider it as final and should make the best of it. The British Government would never consent to further interference between the relations of landlord and tenant in Ireland. Now, to retain his seat by the votes of Presbyterian farmers, he has been compelled to proclaim that the present relations of landlord and tenant are intolerable, and that the compulsory expropriation of the landlords upon fair terms is essential to the prosperity of the country. Politicians of Mr. Russell's stamp and thousands besides believe that continued unrest in Ireland is attributable alone to the want of a radical settlement of the agrarian question. It must appear strange to outsiders that a people who can so lightly squander £100,000,000 on a war in South Africa should shrink from spending a like sum on eradicating the ever-festering thorn of Irish discontent.

How much is the regenerated Irish party likely to effect at Westminster? Mr. Redmond, its responsible head, believes "there is a great future" before it. D. B.

Correspondence.

A PARALLEL NEARER HOME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Republicans and others who uphold President McKinley's policy in the Philippines, have frequently called all those who protest against it "traitors," "aiders and abettors of rebellion," and "unworthy the name of Americans." In response to these charges the case of Lord Chatham has been cited, who, in the House of Lords, justified and defended our forefathers in their rebellion against English rule, and has received nothing but honor for it ever since.

But there is another parallel which, while equally in point, seems to me to have been overlooked: I mean the denunciations of slavery by that very Republican party which would now, if it could, smother the voice of just indignation. A servile insurrection at the South was by no means an imaginary danger, and, had it been produced, would have been fraught with unspeakable horrors. But were the Republicans any the more quiet on that account? It is the chief glory of the party to-day that they would not be silenced. They hammered on the one string that slavery was wrong, wrong, wrong, until the whole nation resounded.

To look on this picture and then on that makes one wish he had died young. E. D.

Grand Rapids, Mich., November 1, 1900.

PAPYRUS OF ANOTHER GREEK WRITER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The explorers and translators of the Graeco-Roman Branch of our Egypt Exploration Fund have come upon an interesting papyrus, in their collection from the Fayum, which proves to be none other than the famous romance, by Chariton, entitled 'The Loves of Chæreas and Callirrhoë.' A facsimile of at least a portion of this Greek romance from an Egyptian tomb will appear in our coming volume. A Latin version was first published at Amsterdam, in 1750, from a manuscript preserved at Florence. The date of Chariton has been uncertain, and the dictionaries have assumed that he flourished not earlier than the fifth century A. D.

This papyrus, fragmentary as it is, was found together with documents dated in the reigns of Commodus and Caracalla; and the handwriting agrees with this, being not later than the second century A. D. Now, if Chariton was so famous as to be read in a village of the Fayum during the second century, it naturally follows that his book had been written at a much earlier period.

The text, too, tends to confirm the authority of the Florentine text of the thirteenth century; and the general result may be said to prove that the copies of the classics made at Byzantium—perhaps a thousand years after Greek literature had a place in Western Europe—were of a remarkably uncorrupted text.

William Copley Winslow.

525 Beacon St., Boston,
October 29, 1900.

VALES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Entirely do I concur in all that Mr. Stillman has written relative to the dis-

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agreeable tax conventionally imposed on visitors to an English private house. Long ago I was often a guest during a twelvemonth spent in this land of universal tippage. An interval of absence followed, when, in 1862, I returned here; and here my tent has continued pitched ever since. But the disgust, in part occasioned by vales, which I had formerly suffered, induced me to form a resolution, one to this day unbroken. This resolution was, to eschew the state of guesthood absolutely. All along, however, having a home of my own, I have, like others, entertained my friends; and it is no small number of them that I have entertained. But, as to their feeing my servants, I have, in all cases where it has been any way feasible, endeavored to prevent it. When successful, I have not infrequently, after the departure of a guest or guests, distributed gratuities among my servants, and sometimes to the extent of a couple of pounds. That a sense of self-respect is not seen to operate on English gentlemen, to the effect of leading them to observe my practice in this matter of indirect remuneration for a necessary adjunct to board and lodging, affects me with mild surprise. CIVIS AMERICANUS.

ENGLAND, October 22, 1900.

SENATOR SHIELDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your department of "Notes," in No. 1843, in your notice of 'The Life of Major-General James Shields,' after referring to his having represented Illinois and Minnesota in the United States Senate, you say: "The title-page illustrates the careless and bombastic character of most of the book: 'Hero of Three Wars and Senator from Three States.' *The third war and State appear to be of the author's imagination.*" You have evidently overlooked the fact that the subject of this book represented the State of Missouri in the United States Senate for a few weeks in 1879. He was elected by the Legislature in January, 1879, to fill out the unexpired term of Lewis V. Bogy, and was succeeded by Senator Vest, one of the present Senators from this State.—Respectfully,

A. R. STROTHER.

KANSAS CITY, MO., October 27, 1900.

A TRANSLATOR DEFENDED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I be allowed a few words in reply to R. M. A.'s criticism, in your issue of October 11, of Mrs. Maude's translation of Tolstoy's novel 'Resurrection'?

The expression "the dear defunct" that shocks R. M. A. was good enough for Bulwer Lytton to use in 'Money'; and in the mouth of Agraphéna, the very superior exlady's maid, it seems particularly in place. Does R. M. A. wish all characters to be made to speak in one and the same style?

Next we are told that the translator ought to have made a selection of the attributes Tolstoy is so fond of piling one upon another; and the reason for taking such an unwarranted liberty with the text of a great writer is, forsooth, because R. M. A. objects to the number of adjectives Tolstoy employs!

Máslova, the heroine, has a slight squint, to which Tolstoy repeatedly refers. But, to satisfy R. M. A., the translator ought to have improved the heroine's personal appearance, in addition to making servants talk the best journalese!

Lastly, R. M. A. is wroth with Tolstoy's way of using numerals, when stating people's ages, etc. He falls foul of Messrs. Dodd, Mead & Co. on this important point, and concludes that if they allow Tolstoy to express himself in his way, there is danger that they will not allow English poets to express themselves in their way.

Only one real slip does R. M. A. point out. The prisoners were, no doubt, called out for *inspection*, and the translator should not have used the word *revision* instead. But if, in some 500 pages of translation from the Russian, there are no blunders worse than that, surely Mrs. Maude's translation must be what competent critics have said that it is, an unusually close, accurate, and vigorous version, enabling the reader to form a good idea of the qualities and the idiosyncrasies of the Russian author.

R. M. A. himself makes the common mistake of spelling Tolstoy's name with an *i*—though he is criticising a book in which it is spelt as Tolstoy himself spells it.

Yours truly,

A READER AND STUDENT OF TOLSTOY.

THE UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENT, MANCHESTER ART MUSEUM, ANCOATS HALL, October 24, 1900.

SACK SHIP.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The communication of your correspondent "A. M. M." prompted me to look at the text of Dudley's 'Voyage' for the meaning of the words, "a small prize of sackes." The editor explains, by a note, it means wine, the word being used in the commercial way, as, for instance, teas, coffees, etc. A cross-reference to Wyatt's Voyage, published in the same volume with Dudley, would seem to confirm this meaning, and were it not for the citation by your correspondent of the Canso Fishery Report of 1732, I should infer that the above defines the use of the word. I do not find the word "sack" in Falconer's 'Marine Dictionary' as designating a kind of ship. I find "saik," a single-masted vessel used in the Levant.

Yours very respectfully, J. C. G.

NEW YORK, October 30, 1900.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was born seventy years ago near the shores of the Baltic Sea, the nursery of sailormen, and reared among them. There were more ships and sailors on that coast in those early days than there was employment, and many of these ships left home in the spring of the year "in ballast" to seek freight in foreign lands. This ballast consisted of sand put into sacks, and thus carried aboard of the ships. I have never heard the term of "sack ships," but sailors coin terms always, such as coalers, whalers, etc.—Yours, G. W. N.

Notes.

A new historical work, by Dr. Edward Eggleston, 'The Transit of Civilization from England to America in the Seventeenth Century,' is in the press for speedy publication by D. Appleton & Co.

China and no end. E. P. Dutton & Co. will shortly issue 'The Far East: Its History and its Question,' by Alexis Krausse, to whom the subject is by no means new.

Of the 'Famous Composers and their Works,' edited by J. K. Paine, Karl Klauser, and Theodore Thomas, more than 40,000 sets were sold by subscription. The publishers, J. B. Millet Co. of Boston, will soon begin the issue of three supplementary volumes, in fifteen parts, bringing the work down to date and adding new features, including a dictionary of musical terms, the plots of famous operas, descriptions of oratorios and symphonies, a chapter on musical critics, etc.

Scribner's 'Musical Literature List' is issued in a new and enlarged edition of 96 pages. It enumerates not only the Scribner books in various branches of musical literature, but practically all musical books in the English language that are in current demand.

Dyrsen & Pfeiffer send us the prospectus of a 'Histoire de France depuis les origines jusqu'à la Révolution,' of which M. Ernest Lavisse will be the editor-in-chief (Paris: Hachette). The work will comprise eight octavo volumes, to be had separately, and will be issued in 64 parts. The task has been to sum up the knowledge acquired since the great historians of the present century undertook to cover the same field.

To multiply our standing praise of the pocket "Temple" series published by J. M. Dent & Co., London, would seem to be the proper thing in the case of the forty-volume edition of Dickens's works just issued by the same house in conjunction with Doubleday & McClure Co. No one at all familiar with the character of these dainty and companionable little books would need any further information than the brand or trade-mark conveys. Their small but perfectly clear typography, their flexible covers, their quaint colored frontispieces, recommend them to all lovers of good taste as well as of Dickens. Mr. Walter Jerrold furnishes an introduction to each novel. It would be impossible to add anything essential to what the younger Dickens has recorded bibliographically, but each edition requires something of the kind, and Mr. Jerrold's discourse is all-sufficient. The set fills two long boxes which answer well enough for bookshelves.

Of fresher interest than the foregoing is the beginning of a Dent-Macmillan reprint of Vasari's 'Lives of the Painters, Sculptors, and Architects'—"The Temple Vasari." This is an eminently wise selection for the series. It will be extended to eight volumes, of which the first is to hand, equipped with a few notes at the end and some of the traditional portraits. Finally, we may mention Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cranford' in the same collection, with the author's lovely face at the front.

While on the subject of miniature editions, we must contrive a good word also for two series from John Lane—first, square, thin little reprints of Rossetti's 'Blessed Damozel,' with illustrations by Percy Bulcock, and of Browning's 'The Statue and the Bust,' illustrated by Philip Connard, who also furnishes the designs for Stephen Phillips's 'Marpessa.' These are part of the "Flowers of Parnassus." 'The Lover's Library' is conceived in quite a different mode—oblong, six-by-three volumes of a hundred pages or so, in green characters surrounded by violet borders, and enshrining Shelley's love poems and Browning's, and Edmond Holmes's 'Silence of Love.' We have scru-

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tinized none of these for the proof-reading, which, in the Temple Matthew Arnold, we remember to have left much to be desired. So, *caveat emptor*.

Last of the kind to be instanced to-day is the Century Co.'s 'Rab and his Friends' (plus 'Our Dogs'), by Dr. John Brown, with a portrait and an introduction by Andrew Lang, which for length was quite necessary to give thickness to the volume. Mr. Lang thinks Dr. Brown's popularity to have been probably greater in this country than in his own. For wear and simple elegance we give the palm to the buff embossed binding of this American series.

Why people will read Pierre Loti on the South Seas with that better book 'Typee' unread, while 'Moby Dick,' the best sea epic since the Odyssey, and, in spite of obvious defects of style, a book with genius enough in it to last out a lifetime of the average romancer, has never had but a handful of readers—is a mystery. Melville has always had the suffrages of the judicious; the publishers, Dana Estes & Co., now show a commendable courage in claiming for him the favor of the general public by reprinting his sea stories. The four volumes include, besides the two mentioned, 'Omoo' and 'White Jacket.' The publishers might perhaps have done better to rest the case for Melville on 'Moby Dick' and 'Typee,' for the other books show more of his defects and fewer of his qualities. The volumes, which, with no distinction of mechanical form, are convenient and legible enough, are, we judge, reprinted from the plates of an edition of 1892.

Charles Scribner's Sons send us the thirteenth revised edition of Baedeker's 'Northern Germany' and the twelfth of 'London and its Environs,' the latter with a detachable index of streets of London, exactly fitted for the pocket, with convenient sectional plans of the metropolis. It is enough to announce the latest renovation of these standard guides.

We cannot put Mr. Guy Wetmore Carryl's alliterative experiment with 'Mother Goose for Grown-Ups' (Harpers) quite on a par with his 'Fables for the Frivolous.' Coming first, it would abundantly have proved Mr. Carryl's title to be an original humorist, but in parts, to use his own expression, we "note that the quality's sometimes strained." The "moral," at least, is generally ingenious and mirth-provoking as heretofore. "Bow and hold your peace," he says in "The Mysterious Misapprehension concerning a Man in our Town"; "Like Omar, underneath the bow You'll find there's paradise enow!" This particular "melody," by the way, exhibits the carelessness in proof-reading which diminishes the book's attractiveness. Peter Newell and Gustave Verbeek furnish the illustrations to Mr. Carryl's nonsense.

With indefatigable ardor Mr. J. G. Kitton persists in presenting to the world and commenting upon every fragment that can reasonably be ascribed to the pen of Dickens. In 'The Minor Writings of Charles Dickens' (A. C. Armstrong) there is doubtless much information, especially with regard to rare editions, that will interest Dickens collectors. But the truth is, that Dickens wrote an amazing lot of worthless stuff by way of working off his superabundant energies. It was the sawdust of his workshop. Every magazine or newspaper editor (and Dickens was both) has occasion to write much that he prefers to leave unclaimed. To wade through the entire set of nineteen volumes of *Household Words* in order to identify "the Chief's" casual contributions, appears to us a very questionable labor of love. We have lately seen the same well-meaning attentions paid to the unsigned work of Thackeray. Even in his case, the results were not altogether happy, and Dickens is the last man to stand such a test. This is Mr. Kitton's fourth volume on what we may call the minor antiquities of Dickens. Yet the absurdly low prices quoted in his bibliographies for first editions of the fugitive writings of Dickens would seem to indicate that his interest in the subject is shared by few.

Under the title 'A Royal Rhetorician' (Brentano), Mr. R. S. Rait reprints, with an introduction and notes, some writings of James I. The Bishop of Winchester's edition of King James's works, published in 1616, contains 600 pages, but Mr. Rait has drawn very moderately upon this enormous supply. The pieces which he selects are the 'Treatise on Scottis Poesie,' the 'Counterblaste to Tobacco,' a number of sonnets, and a few psalms. Their intrinsic value is small, but they have a certain interest, as showing how James's singular mind worked, and how a man who was educated by George Buchanan used the Scottish and English tongues. Some readers may find a certain amount of amusement in glancing through the conclusion of the 'Counterblaste to Tobacco.' "Have you not reason, then, to bee ashamed, and to forbeare this filthie noveltie, so basely grounded, so foolishly received, and so grossely mistaken in the right use thereof? In your abuse thereof, sinning against God, harming yourselves, both in persons and goods, and raking also thereby the markes and notes of vanitie upon you: by the custome thereof making yourselves to be wondered at by all forraine civil Nations, and by all strangers that come among you, to be scorned and contemned. A custome lothsome to the eye, hatefull to the Nose, harmfull to the braine, dangerous to the Lungs, and in the black, stinking fume thereof, neerest resembling the horrible Stigian smoke of the pit that is bottomelesse."

Of Mr. J. Robertson-Scott's admirable dollar hand-book, 'The People of China: Their Country, History, Life, Ideas, and Relations to the Foreigner' (Methuen & Co.), we must speak with praise, despite its limitations. The author, a journalist, has never been in China, but has read well the literature of his subject. He has packed within 200 pages just that kind of information which an intelligent newspaper-reader would be likely to seek from a friend who had lived in the Far East. His view is wholly that of an Englishman, who, however, tries to be perfectly fair to the Chinese, strenuously endeavoring to give their point of view. He devotes three chapters to the history of China—From Confucius to Lord McCartney, Great Britain and China, and the General Scramble. To "The Chinaman" he gives four chapters, telling how he is governed and educated, and what are his characteristics and beliefs. Under the head of "The Foreign Devil," he discusses the Jesus religion, opium, and the British sphere of influence. Glancing at the future, he shows China unconscious of decay, yet in the pangs of reform. An appendix gives some scanty biographical items concerning leading men in China, a short glossary, a note on the best books about China, and a good map. The latter is worth almost the price of the volume. It shows especially the invasion of the Far East by the railway engineers, and what in Japan, Korea, India, Siberia, and the Chinese Empire are the real and the proposed railways.

Mr. George T. Tobin's six illustrations of FitzGerald are the pretext for the "Omar Khayyám Calendar" issued by Frederick A. Stokes Co. on as many sheets fastened by a riband. They cannot be praised for imagination or art, but the thick-and-thin admirer of the verse will be content with them.

The principal contents of the *Geographical Journal* for October are Prof. A. C. Haddon's account of the geographical distribution in British New Guinea of the various forms of houses, canoes, weapons, pottery, and decorative art, with numerous illustrations and maps, and Mr. Borchgrevink's description of the *Southern Cross* expedition to the Antarctic. This is the story of an attempt to overcome the difficulties presented to exploration by the precipitous height of the land, the innumerable glaciers traversed by deep yawning crevasses, the cold, and the frequency and force of the gales. "Nothing more appalling than these frightful winds, accompanied by tons of drift-snow from the mountains above, can be imagined. On ninety-two days, or 26 per cent. of the time spent at Cape Adare, the wind blew from the east-southeast and southeast with a velocity above forty miles an hour, and on one or two occasions above ninety miles an hour." There is also a summary of the work of the geographical section of the British Association, and the Presidential address of Sir G. S. Robertson on the diminution of time-distance between the different parts of the world through electricity and steam, and its "bearing upon the British Empire."

An account of Mantchuria by E. Bretschneider, in *Petermann's Mitteilungen*, No. 9, gives the leading facts in its history and relations to Russia. The statement is made that the Mantchus are disappearing under the influx of the Chinese, and the time is probably not far distant when their language will cease to be spoken, as all the children are taught Chinese. A study of the various forms of culture in the islands of the Pacific, by L. Frobenius, is accompanied by a series of maps showing the distribution of the different kinds of weapons, dwellings, boats, and certain industries.

In Formosa, despite the bad politics that have disturbed and disgraced the Japanese administration, solid progress has been made in educational matters, especially, with the savage Formosan. Several years ago Mr. Azawa Shuki and other pioneers attempted to train some of the native boys and girls, and there are now sixteen public schools established in various parts of the island. It is from the graduates from these schools that students have been selected for a Normal School, so that the spread of education may be fostered. At the present time about 1,200 native pupils attend the Government schools, and gradually the Formosans are being induced to study the Japanese language. The intellectual status of the mountain savage is very low. He has the greatest difficulty in counting, and cannot perform the simplest arithmetical calculation. When two persons are to-

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gether and five rations or articles of food are given them, they take two apiece and throw the fifth away. It has been found by a Japanese teacher that when the Formosan savages, even of the worst sort, are treated kindly, they are not difficult to manage, and, despite discouraging instances of non-success here and there, the Japanese with their new weapons, railways, commerce, and schools, seem to be making an encouraging advance.

The Consular Reports for October contains mention of the fiftieth annual convention of German sugar manufacturers at Magdeburg, at which Dr. Paasche presented a report upon the conditions of the sugar industry in this country and Cuba, the result of his observations during a recent visit made "solely for the purpose of ascertaining if dangers threaten the German sugar industry there." He said, in substance, that "if Cuba regains its former productiveness, or, still worse, if it doubles its production, as some fear, the magnitude of the disaster which will result in the world's markets cannot be overestimated." Among the numerous indications of the unprecedented commercial and industrial activity in Germany is the fact, noted in another report, that manual training is given in 2,375 schools and institute workshops. Of these the greater part are devoted to wood-carving, to working in cardboard, and carpentry. More than 2,200 teachers have been taught to become instructors in this branch of education. There is further noted the discovery of extensive diamond diggings in the interior of British Guiana. Large numbers of gems have been taken to London, where they have been pronounced superior to the South African and equal in quality to the Brazilian stones.

The Geological Survey of New South Wales has published, as No. 8 of the "Mineral Resources" series, a report on the Hillgrove gold-field, by E. C. Andrews. It treats of one of the most important gold-fields discovered in recent years in that colony, and is of special interest on account of the occurrence there of lodes containing ores of antimony and tungsten associated with gold. The scheelite deposits are also of considerable importance. The pamphlet is fully illustrated, and contains a map of the region described.

The tenth volume of reports and papers of the Iowa Geological Survey fills 666 pages and is illustrated by more than 100 cuts and ten folded maps. It includes the eighth annual report of the State Geologist, from which it appears that during 1899 special attention was directed to the mapping of previously unsurveyed counties and to the preparation of reports on their physiography, geology, and resources. In all, nearly 24,000 square miles have been surveyed—an area which embraces nearly one-half of the State.

Madame Curie has succeeded in determining the atomic weight of radium, or at least in finding a limit, 174, below which it cannot fall. The atomic weight of barium is 137.5; hence the evidence is very strong that this intensely interesting substance, which M. and Mme. Curie have done so much to bring to light, is actually an element, and not, as has been thought possible, merely a peculiar form of barium.

Whether Rhetoric is a proper subject for graduate study leading to a degree, and, if so, how it should be taught, are questions now under investigation by the Pedagogical Section of the Modern Language Association of America. A circular of inquiry which has been prepared and is now being distributed, will be sent to any interested person upon application to the Secretary, Prof. W. E. Mead, Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn.

—The letter I is nearly finished in the October issue of the greatest of all quarterlies, the Oxford English Dictionary (New York: H. Frowde). This part closes with "invalid" (substantive), of which the common English stress is upon the last syllable, whereas the American is upon the first; yet our practice obtains occasionally in England in the corresponding adjective use (*e. g.*, "an invalid sister"). American and New England is "intervale," with a single example from Lithgow antedating the earliest citation on this side of the water. Here began "interview" and "interviewer" in the newspaper sense, for which Dr. Murray has procured no earlier citation than those from the *Nation* in 1869. We may add that as late as May 16, 1878, the word "interview" was still accompanied by inverted commas in this journal, as if it had not obtained a respectable footing. The *thing* has never obtained that, so far as Dr. Murray's extracts can be taken as proof. The once respectable (if "peculiar"). "institution" of slavery has its landmark here in a passage from Thackeray (1860), who professed himself no advocate of it. From the French we have adapted "intransigent'" (1883), "intern" and "interned" (1866); from the Dutch of Cape Colony "inspan" (1852), to 'yoke' or 'harness up.' "Interlope" has a curious history, and somewhat obscure. It turns up at the end of the sixteenth century, and fully a hundred years elapse before any cognate appears in neighboring tongues. It captivated the French for its convenience, and the Dutch almost took their own as they refound it. "Interloper," on the other hand, arose as an independent formation with a special meaning of 'vagabond.' *Inter-* is one of the great prefixes of this section of the Dictionary, and its original French form of *entre* is preserved only in "entertain" and "enterprise." "Interest" grew out of "interess" after the French, in a manner not clear; and "interesting," in the modern sense, is no older than 1768, and so falls in the lifetime of the grandfather of many a man now witnessing the expiration of the century. How we got along without the latter word before that date, passes comprehension, since it has no close synonym and has become a perplexing banality. We observe that Dr. Murray gives no example of the coupling of "interesting and instructive," another odious commonplace hard to avoid. The phrase "for instance" emerges in 1657. While "insight" has taken solid hold of the vocabulary, "insee" is obsolete and rare. "Insense," to "inform," can be neatly rendered by the Sea Islands locution, 'to make *sensibble* of.' Coleridge's apology for his invention of "intensify" is given under that word; and this author's "insupportably advancing," in his Ode to France, would, if appended to Milton's "insupportably his foot advanc't," have shown the echoer. We close these desultory comments with the remark that our football slang of "interference" has not been apprehended—perhaps not apprehensible—for the Oxford Dictionary.

—It is a pity that the passion for book-making seems to have seized upon Mr. Archibald Colquhoun. But for some weakness of that kind, all that is new and essential in his 'Russia against India; The Struggle for Asia' (Harpers) might easily have been put in a magazine article. Three chapters (pp. 55-125), descriptive of central Asia and its peoples, are absolute padding; two chapters (pp. 1-54), descriptive of the Russian advance in Asia, are practically stolen by Mr. Colquhoun from himself elsewhere; it is only with page 126 and a consideration of the loyalty of the people of India that the book really begins. But when it does, it is excellent. The dangers that lie in bureaucratic rule—over-taxation, and the tyranny of money-lenders—generally the problem of the government of an Oriental people on Western methods, however just and well intended they may be—are well brought out. Then comes the thesis that Russia's objective is India; that India cannot be defended *in* India, but that the frontier must run from Herat to Faizabad, the fighting line being from Kabul to Kandahar, which is coming to be recognized; that the Persian Gulf must be held absolutely, and a railway constructed as quickly as possible through Baluchistan and southern Persia to join the German line at Bagdad, and run across northern Arabia to Egypt, which will certainly come in time. But all this means practically the occupation and garrisoning of Afghanistan, an expense which India cannot possibly bear. So it must be reckoned as imperial expenditure and borne by the Empire. The converse of Mr. Arthur Balfour's famous dictum, when he sought to justify saddling India with the expense of Indian troops used for imperial purposes, holds here. If the fate of India may be decided by a fight in the English Channel, the fate of England may lie in a battle on the Helmund or Indus. Mr. Colquhoun's book is timely, then. Perhaps in this may be found an excuse for its existence: one book weighs much more in rousing and forming public sentiment than many magazine articles. The map, it may be noticed, is hardly up to even recent history. In it Chitral, Yasin, and Nagar still fall outside British territory.

—The 'Memoirs of the Countess Potocka' (Doubleday & McClure) is an autobiography which remained unpublished for thirty years after the death of its author in 1867, and was then edited by another Pole, Casimir Stryienski. Editors take such liberties that one always likes to know upon what plan a given editor has proceeded. No explanation is offered by translator or publisher of how M. Stryienski "arranged the 'Memoirs' for publication," and a page in facsimile of the original manuscript, while it lends an air of authenticity, conveys little idea of the editor's methods. Still, the text raises no inevitable doubts. Whatever may have been kept back, the published part seems to come directly from the Countess. The memoirs are not a complete record, for they break off at 1820, and the author lived on at Paris until the closing years of the Second Empire. This Countess Potocka, who should not be confounded with the more celebrated Hélène Massalski Potocka, belonged to the family Tyszkiewicz, and was closely allied with that of Poniatowski. The writer of the present book was a great-granddaughter of Stanislaus Poniatowski, the companion of Charles XII. of Sweden, and the grandniece of Stanislaus Augustus, the last King of Poland. Accordingly, she belonged to the highest ranks of the Polish

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nobility, and hated Suvaroff only less than she did the Russian Government. The Countess describes a visit to Paris in 1810 very fully; otherwise, the action centres in Poland. Prior to 1806, her family interests were paramount, but when the war of the Third Coalition brought the French to Warsaw, she came in contact with Napoleon and his staff. After the Grand Duchy of Warsaw had crumbled, she witnessed the return of the Russians. The last episode of the volume is the marriage of the Grand Duke Constantine. The rank of the Countess Potocka brought her the acquaintance of the French and Russian aristocracy, but did not altogether protect her from insult. She had the liveliness of the Polish nobles, and she knew how to communicate it to her memoirs. A passage describing her girlish views about marriage will show the general quality of her style: "My mind and heart were, I cannot say exactly how, swelled with a sort of juvenile exaltation, nourished by the perusal of the great poets whom it had been impossible to keep from me. I wanted heroes like Racine's, or knights like Tancred. Mighty passions were my need, instantaneous affections, great and sublime deeds! I waited! But as I finally perceived that neither Britannicus nor Gonzalvo of Cordova presented himself, and that not even a meeting with Grandison was likely, I made up my mind to descend from the clouds, and sorrowfully reflected that I should be obliged to end by marrying, like everybody else, under the guidance of reason and expediency."

—Hoepli of Milan has undertaken to produce, in a series of volumes, a history of Italy which shall be scientific in spirit while popular in form. The task is not an easy one, for nowhere else is to be found so complicated and multitudinous a series of events, resulting from so many diverse forces working through the evolution of antagonistic institutions. If the enterprise is carried to a successful issue, it will prove most serviceable, for as yet the reader may look in vain for a comprehensive and intelligible account of the vicissitudes through which Italy has passed since the fall of Rome, and of the influences which have made it what it is and have enabled it to impress itself so profoundly on the development of European civilization. Several volumes of the series have appeared, beginning with Count Ugo Balzani's work on the Italian Chronicles, noticed in these columns a few months since, and now we have to welcome one by the veteran Prof. Pasquale Villari—'Le Invasioni barbariche in Italia'—giving a condensed but clear account of the fall of the Western Empire, and bringing the story down to the coronation of Charlemagne in 800. The sources of the period are so well known and have been so often worked over that nothing of novelty is to be expected in the statement of facts, but the work is illuminated by the author's philosophic insight into causes and effects, while his sense of historic perspective relieves the narrative of unnecessary details, and enables the reader to grasp the sequence of events through the most tremendous revolution in the annals of civilization. It is a story which can never lose its interest, for that revolution has made us what we are, and its consequences are still operative in our daily lives.

LIFE OF FRANCIS PARKMAN.

A Life of Francis Parkman. By Charles Haight Farnham. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

There is perhaps no American author whose character and career so test the skill of a biographer as do Francis Parkman's, and it is a satisfaction to say at the outset that Mr. Farnham has accomplished, in his mode of meeting this test, a rather remarkable piece of literary work. There is something unique about the whole personality and fame of the author whom he commemorates. Surrounded by a group of historians to whom reputation had come easily, though not undeservedly, he long preserved an isolation alike of theme and fame—or want of fame. At a time when Prescott, Bancroft, Motley were as well known in England as in America, one might speak of Parkman among London literary men and find no one who had even heard of him. This was due in part to the fact that he was a specialist, and this in a direction little cultivated in English circles, and partly to the proud, shy, reticent nature of the man; these qualities being farther intensified by a career of heroic stoicism under enormous physical drawbacks. In his own country, while his books were better known than in England, the man was not. Living in a singularly cultivated circle, in the Augustan age of Boston, he always kept himself aloof, and never seemed less appropriately placed than when he consented to be for a time the president of a semi-literary, semi-social club; not that he did not do his official duties faithfully, but that he had not that spirit of constitutional and miscellaneous fellowship which is quite essential in a club leader. His later years, moreover, even after his fame was established, were saddened by those clouds so apt to gather around the temperament of a conservative growing old amid a community whose instinctive movements are in an opposite direction from his. When we add that, in his biographer's discriminating words, "he often wished to free himself from some of the most fundamental inherited forces of his character" (p. 8), we have a combination troublesome in youth and peculiarly exasperating in age. Parkman said of himself that he had "no natural inclinations" for historical research, and found it "abundantly irksome and laborious" (p. 153). He would hardly, perhaps, have enjoyed life even had he possessed health. As it was, he lived one of the most absolutely heroic and self-denying lives of our generation.

Even in his literary opinions he was almost reactionary, and always held Pope and Byron to be superior to Wordsworth, whom he disliked, his biographer tells us, both "as poet and man" (p. 347). Emerson is not mentioned in the book, and Parkman seems to have been scarcely influenced by Parker, with whom he had travelled and whose admirable letter criticising 'Pontiac' is appended to this book. Parkman "felt repelled" by what he considered Thoreau's "affectation of being natural" (p. 196). His personal preferences beyond the circle of authors were equally decided and perhaps limited. He thought Lincoln "generally overrated," and indebted more to circumstances than to inherent ability; had little admiration for Garrison or Phillips, and considered Sumner "deficient in courage and manliness" (p. 278)—Sumner, whose triumphant conquest over physical obstacles approached nearer than any other to Parkman's own. He wholly and even vehemently disapproved of universal suffrage, including woman suffrage, was "an undoubted aristocrat in politics" (p. 270), called the working classes "the barbarians of civilization" (p. 267), but never succeeded in developing any plan for restricted suffrage that would satisfy even himself.

All these qualities are admirably analyzed by Mr. Farnham, and those who worked side by side with Parkman for many years will be surprised to find how well he is now delineated by one who knew him comparatively little. The book abounds in sentences as trenchant as Parkman's own, and far more judicial. "He opposed himself so bluntly and broadly to all philanthropic reforms and their advocates as almost to appear indifferent to the welfare of the race." "Few men of equal eminence ever had so little personal or intellectual contact with the liberal leaders of their time." "His own asperity was hateful to him, but he could not cut loose from that side of his nature." "Helped by the warmth of personal contact and friendship, we find him judging men charitably and generously; but, in the absence of this humane influence, he was neither charitable nor generous" (p. 295). It is interesting to learn from this biography that Parkman's sister described him as a "reverent Agnostic" (p. 312), and his daughter, Mrs. J. T. Coolidge, as "a passionate Puritan."

In speaking of literary work, Mr. Farnham shows much the same judicial quality. Parkman, as he points out, had a distinct aversion for the professed *littérateur* (p. 201), and yet he himself, although trained under the most judicious critic of his time, Prof. Edward T. Channing, began with an extremely florid style in his 'Pontiac.' His illustrations at this period were not merely florid, but tamely so; his descriptions and observations were fresh and vigorous, while his images and illustrations were apt to be commonplace. Theodore Parker makes this criticism yet more strongly in comparing the style to that of J. T. Headley (p. 376). Parkman was as much a votary of strong characters as Carlyle, but suffered throughout from want of all imaginative sympathy with the nature of the American Indian. The whole world unrolled by the closer researches of such later explorers as Alice Fletcher and Lucien Carr was veiled from Parkman during his period of constructive work, although the Pueblo Indians latterly interested him; and it is perfectly true, as his biographer points out, that he did more than any one to enlarge the merely classical themes which at first absorbed and came near to monopolizing the American Archæological Institute. It was the opinion of the late Justin Winsor that this limitation, if there were no other, would impair the permanence of Parkman's fame, and he deprecated those comparisons with Gibbon into which Mr. Fiske and others have been too rashly tempted. But no one will ever question Mr. Farnham's conclusion: "In his patient fortitude under suffering, in his persistent industry despite the greatest obstacles, and in his fidelity to his ideals, Parkman was certainly one of the most heroic figures in the history of letters."

The arrangement of this book is an original one, and is perhaps open to some ques-

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tion. The chronology is confined mainly to one chapter, and the other chapters are chiefly in the form of essays; and this, in dealing with such a really detached figure as Parkman, was perhaps the best method. The letters describing Parkman's college escapades may be the subject of criticism, but are really essential to understanding the development of his peculiar temperament. We have little else to add. In the list (p. 16) of the clubs to which he belonged in college, the Davy Club should probably have been included, since chemistry was one of his earliest tastes. The author's statement that Parkman's letters to Frenchmen were written in excellent French, is hardly justified by the example quoted (p. 157), which shows accuracy rather than facility, and is not improved by Mr. Farnham in his translation, when he substitutes "You have given it to me heavy" for the far more graceful French expression. We sometimes see in the author some of the inevitable limitations of a younger man, as where he does not recognize that the "F. Lee" of p. 105 is identical with the Francis L. Lee of p. 31. With these trifling criticisms, we part reluctantly from a book which is without question one of the most honest and admirable of American literary biographies.

RADAU'S EARLY BABYLONIAN HISTORY.

Early Babylonian History down to the End of the Fourth Dynasty of Ur. By Rev. Hugo Radau, A.M., B.D., Ph.D. 1900. Large 8vo, pp. xix, 452.

This book, a development of Dr. Radau's dissertation for the doctor's degree in Columbia University in the year 1898, is a striking evidence of the remarkable expansion of university facilities in this country in the last few years. A quarter of a century ago it would have been impossible to pursue here the studies requisite for a doctor's degree, with Semitic languages as the major theme. There was no university in which those languages were taught. Now, all the larger universities in the East, and some of those in the West, have one or more professors in the field of Semitic languages, while several possess or have access to valuable collections of Assyrian and Babylonian antiquities, either originals or casts.

The writer of the present volume, who is Mayo Fellow in the General Theological Seminary of the Episcopal Church in New York, has been able to utilize for this work a valuable collection of Babylonian tablets (some 262 tablets and fragments of tablets in all) recently purchased by the Dean of that institution, the Rev. E. A. Hoffman, D.D. An appendix of 123 pages is devoted to a description and discussion of these tablets, the larger part of which date from the old Babylonian period, and, according to the best information obtainable, were plundered by the Arabs from the ruins of Shirpurla (Telloh), Borsippa, Erech, and Nippur. It is to be regretted that no way has yet been found to stop this plundering of ancient ruins by the Arabs. Much is always destroyed through the ignorance or carelessness of the diggers, and what is secured is, for the most part, without certain provenance; or, where the place of finding is known, there is no information regarding the position and surroundings in which the objects were found. This ignorance as to source and situation deprives such material of a great part of its value. Nor is this the worst evil resulting from the illicit traffic in antiquities: in digging for objects, the Arabs destroy the structures in which those objects are found, thus rendering it impossible ever certainly to reconstruct the history of the place.

It would be ultimately better for science that the inscriptions should remain buried until they can be excavated in a careful and intelligent manner. Unfortunately, there seems no likelihood that the great museums will unite in taking action to secure this result. Most, if not all of them are *participes criminis*, owing their collections of original Babylonian material, in part or altogether, to this system of purchase from dealers, who in their turn derive their supplies from these Arabian destroyers of antiquities. It must be admitted that the ignorance and corruption of the Turkish Government and officials have offered a serious obstacle to action on the part of the museums, and encouraged the illicit traffic in antiquities; but, on the other hand, the Turk may well say that he has found the archæologists, as a whole, fully as unreliable and tricky as himself, and that, if he is corrupt, they are corrupters. In reality, the rivalries and jealousies of the museums have been the main reason why no steps have been taken to prevent the wholesale destruction of Babylonian ruins by the antiquity-dealers.

So long as those ruins are to be exploited in the manner indicated, it is cause of congratulation when the results of such exploitation fall into such good hands and are so speedily made accessible to the public. The old Babylonian tablets in this collection belong, for the most part, to the third millennium B. C., and are dated in the years of various kings and *patesis* of Ur (many of these tablets come from Borsippa) and Shirpurla, with one tablet from an unknown city, Ash-nun-na-ki, and one, published before, bearing the name of a king of Larsa. There are also twenty tablets of Kassite kings, of the second millennium B. C., apparently from Nippur. These tablets are temple records, receipts for grain, wool, oil, and the like, paid to the temples, or lists of expenses of date-wine, flour, food, and oil, or reports from the overseers of the flocks and herds, either with regard to live cattle or with regard to skins and wool. Dr. Radau publishes a number of these last-named reports, with the cuneiform text on one page and the transcription and transliteration on the opposite. They are dated in this fashion: "One year after Bur-Sin became King," "the year King Bur-Sin devastated Urbillum," "the year of the throne of Bel," "the year Huhunuri was devastated," "the year Karhar was devastated a second time," etc., and hence possess a certain value for the reconstruction of political history. On the other hand, such a system of dating makes the determination of an accurate chronology difficult and complicated. Some of the tablets of this collection give the items received from various persons for the different gods of the temple. A certain number are the so-called "case tablets," all of which are sealed with seals, giving the name of the scribe who wrote the tablet and of his father, together with the latter's title. The collection exhibits admirably the general method of financial management of the old Babylonian temples, and the careful system in use for recording all receipts and expenditures.

The new Babylonian tablets, none of which are translated in full, cover a much broader field, and deal with the affairs of the people rather than with the concerns of the temples. Two of them are astronomical texts, four lists of gods; the remainder are contract tablets, covering a period of 500 years or more, from the seventh to the second century B. C., and dealing, in Dr. Radau's words, with

"almost everything which may happen in the daily intercourse of men—bequests, . . . selling . . . of shares, lands, property of various kinds, etc., etc.; statements that one person owes another . . . dates, figs, wine, or money, which latter had to be paid back either with or without interest. Sometimes it is also stated that if the debtor fails to pay by a certain date, then the money shall bear interest . . . Rents for houses or gardens, law-suits, and many other interesting contracts, are also to be found among the tablets of this collection" (p. 332).

It is this minute and unconscious picture of the daily affairs of life which gives Babylonian contract-tablets their value. When a sufficient number of them shall have been published in intelligible translations, they will furnish the material for a history of Babylonia surpassing, in the accuracy of its descriptions of the every-day life of the people, any history of past ages yet written. It is to be hoped that means may shortly be found to publish this and other similar collections in full, for the benefit of the historian and the student of mankind.

The bulk of the book is devoted to a discussion of early Babylonian history, for which Dr. Radau depends principally upon the French discoveries at Telloh, supplemented by the hitherto published results of the American explorations at Nippur. (Unfortunately, very few of the "finds" from the last-named site have yet been made accessible to scholars.) For the translation of these ancient texts he acknowledges especially his indebtedness to Jensen, Hilprecht, and Thureau-Dangin, and the last-named he quotes with especial frequency. In his treatment of the earliest period he follows neither Hilprecht nor Thureau-Dangin. He mocks at the former's identification of Gishban with Harran because Gishban means "city of the bow," and because the ruins of Harran, as depicted in Sachan's 'Reise,' resemble a half-moon, which also looks like a bow. He holds that the Semites came from the south, presumably from Arabia, as early, certainly, as the close of the fifth millennium B. C. He believes that they found a civilized people, the Sumerians, in possession of southern Babylonia; that this people had invented the cuneiform writing, and that the earliest inscriptions which have come down to us are in the Sumerian tongue. The early rulers of Shirpurla were Semites, who, although writing in the Sumerian language, betray themselves at times by Semitic words and idioms. At that period the Semites were becoming politically dominant, although as yet under the influence of the superior civilization of the Sumerians. In northern Babylonia on the other hand, in Akkad, the earliest inscriptions, from the commencement of the fourth millennium, are Semitic—evidence that the Semites found this country unoccupied, or relatively so, at the time of their invasion.

In details of succession of dynasties, location of places, interpretation of names, and the like, Radau constantly disagrees with

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Hilprecht, but he is at one with him in the extremely early date which he assigns to the earliest written records, and the point of departure for his system of chronology. The earliest inscription yet known, according to him, is an inscription of En-shag-kush-anna of Ki-en-gi, which he assigns to a date "before 4500 B. C." Then follow the inscriptions of the first kings of Shirpurla, commencing with 4500 B. C. His point of departure is what we might almost call the traditional date of Sargon of Agadé, or Akkad, 3800 B. C., which he accepts as proved. The supposed evidence for this date is an inscription of Nabonidus, King of Babylon, in which he informs us that he discovered the foundation records of the temple of the sun-god at Shirpurla deposited by Naram Sin 3,200 years before his time. Adding the date of Nabonidus (550) to this 3200, we have 3750 B. C. for the date of Naram Sin, which puts his father, Sargon I., in round numbers at 3800 B. C. This statement of Nabonidus is unsupported by any other evidence. It is in itself suspicious, both because the number made use of by Naram Sin is a round number, and also because that number is a multiple of forty. It is noteworthy that in the Old Testament the number forty is used not infrequently to mean merely a generation, and that once (I. Kings vi., 1) the number four hundred and eighty is used to mean twelve generations—that is, forty multiplied by twelve. The evidence from excavations seems to discredit Nabonidus's statement. So at Nippur, according to the reports thus far published, the structures of Naram Sin rest immediately on those of Ur-Gur, who is ordinarily placed at about 2800 B. C.; and the French excavations at Telloh bear similar testimony. On these and other grounds Thureau-Dangin, Tiele, Lehmann, and other recent writers reject Nabonidus's statement and assume for Sargon a date 500 to 1,000 years later. Lehmann, whom Tiele inclines to follow, supposes that in Nabonidus's inscription, by the addition of one line, 3200 was written by mistake for 2200, which would place Sargon about 2800 B. C., instead of 3800. This change in the date of Sargon affects, of course, all previous dates.

Radau's treatment of the succession of kings and *patesis* of Shirpurla and of kings of Ur does not seem to us at all satisfactory. In the case of kings of Ur, for instance, he has, in one dynasty, an Ur-Gur followed by his son Dungi, whom he dates at 3200 and 3150 B. C. respectively. In another dynasty some time after 2800 B. C., he has another Ur-Gur followed by another Dungi. These two Ur-Gurs and Dungis are, he thinks, differentiated from one another by the fact that slightly different titles appear on tablets bearing those names. In constructing his system of chronology, he has assumed that each dynasty mentioned for any given place excludes dynasties of other places. If, for instance, a king of Isin claims to be king of Erech, Ur, etc., there could have been no other king of Erech or of Ur at that time. But this does not follow. What a confused mass mediæval history would be if we were to reckon its chronology according to the claims of the official titles of rulers! Kings of England called themselves kings of France, Scotland, and the like at a time when in reality native kings ruled over those countries, and it seems not unlikely that similar methods may have prevailed in Babylonia. Another fault of Radau's chronology, which he shares with some others who have dealt with these earlier periods, is the practice of assuming a large, round number of years, 100 or 500, to account for palæographic changes and the like.

While recognizing Dr. Radau's industry and the valuable suggestions which he has made as to the order of succession of certain dynasties and rulers, it does not seem to us that his chronology is tenable. The date of Sargon must, for the present, be regarded as not proven, Nabonidus's inscription to the contrary notwithstanding; and all that precedes and much that follows Sargon, until Babylon secures the hegemony, toward the close of the second millennium B.C., is still confused and uncertain. Researches in Babylonia appear to have proved the existence, in the south at least, of a relatively high condition of civilization, as early probably as 6000 B.C., but it has not yet been shown that we have inscriptions from "before 4500" or even 3500 B.C.

Interesting to the student of religions is the last chapter or section of the book, "The Sign of 'God' before Certain Proper Names." Dr. Radau points out that, beginning with Sargon I. and ending with the last dynasty of Ur, we find the sign of divinity prefixed to the names of a number of kings. Gudea, *patesi* of Shirpurla, set up a statue of himself and ordered that certain portions of drink, food, flour, etc., should be offered to it yearly. A number of tablets of the last dynasty of Ur mention this same Gudea, with the sign for God before his name, among those for whom "appointed portions," that is, sacrifices, are prescribed. In the same series of tablets, prescribing sacrifices for various gods, occurs the name of Dungi, King of Ur, also with the sign for God prefixed. A tablet published by Thureau-Dangin mentions statues of Gimil-Sin, King of Ur, in three different temples, and prescribes offerings before them on the new moon and on the fifteenth day of the month. Of any later worship of the kings as gods there is no trace. Thureau-Dangin suggests Egyptian influence, in view of the fact that Sargon had extended his empire as far as Palestine, "and had thus come into contact with Egyptian ideas." Radau rejects this suggestion, and reaches the very singular conclusion that, in assuming the title of God, Sargon was reverting to the primitive Semitic faith, which was kept purest in the kingdom of Agadé, as the most remote from Sumerian influence.

"We have seen that Sargon I., and especially his son Naram Sin, not only conquered the west but also Arabia. But Arabia was the original home of the Semites. Here among the Semites of the Arabian Desert the old Semitic faith was preserved in all its purity. Sargon I., himself being a Semite, was only too glad to 'renew' the old faith of the Semites—which to some extent was still lingering among his people—especially because it contributed so much to his own honor" (p. 310).

There is absolutely no ground for such a supposition, or, rather, it is in direct contradiction of everything which we know about the original Semitic conceptions of the gods, and especially the conceptions current in Arabia.

With the doctor's degree, there seems to have developed in this country a tendency to imitate the form and method of German doctoral dissertations, and this volume is a fair specimen of such imitation. It is cumbersome, the text is burdened with innumerable abbreviations and references, the style is graceless, and the presentation lacks clearness and interest. Furthermore, Dr. Radau intersperses his English sentences with unnecessarily untranslated words and phrases, especially French and German words and phrases. His transliterations, also, are foreign, *Djokha* for *Jokha*, and the like. We criticise the form of the work thus severely because the tendency toward bad form has seemed to us to be spreading. Is there any good reason why scientific material should not be presented in an agreeable and intelligible manner, or why the English used in scientific works should not be clear and graceful? Is it not worth while for our universities to consider the form as well as the contents of the doctoral dissertations presented by their scholars?

The book itself will prove of value to the student of early Babylonian history. A mass of material has been collected and interpreted with much diligence and hard work; and if we do not agree with all the conclusions reached by the author, we at least recognize the value of the work which he has done in a field of extreme difficulty, and are grateful both for the facts which he has placed at our disposal and the suggestions which he has made for their interpretation.

SOME THEATRICAL BOOKS.

In two very attractive volumes, the first of a new series of biographical studies (G. P. Putnam's Sons), Mr. Edward Robins, already known as a theatrical chronicler, tells the stories of 'Twelve Great Actors' and 'Twelve Great Actresses.' The selected actors are Garrick, John Philip Kemble, Edmund Kean, J. B. Booth, Forrest, Macready, Charles Mathews, Edwin Booth, Fechter, Burton, E. A. Sothern, and John Lester Wallack, a fairly representative list, although the principle of selection is not altogether clear. It is not easy to understand, for instance, why preference should have been given to such men as Mathews and Sothern, admirable comedians as both of them were, over George Frederick Cooke, T. A. Cooper, and Samuel Phelps. The right of Fechter to so much preëminence might also be contested, although there can be no question of his genius for romantic drama, in which he was probably the equal of Lemaître. It should be noted, however, that Mr. Robins does not assert specifically that the twelve were chosen wholly on their merits. Of course it was impossible that he should find anything at once new and important to say about any of them. But he has sifted the old material with care, and rearranged it with considerable dexterity, so as to make compact and interesting stories, enlivened with a good deal of original comment, which does credit to his imagination. His facts are taken from the best authorities, and doubtless are, in the main, accurate; but, like other theatrical writers, he is apt to be a little over-enthusiastic in his estimates of his subjects. In his account of the miserable feud between Forrest and Macready, he holds the scale of justice very evenly; but the English actor, over-anxious as he was for social distinction, was something better than the mere cringing snob which Mr. Robins apparently supposes him to have been.

His twelve actresses are Anne Bracegirdle,

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Anne Oldfield, Peg Woffington, Frances Abington, Sarah Siddons, Dora Jordan, "Perdita" Robinson, Fanny Kemble, Rachel, Charlotte Cushman, Adelaide Neilson, and Ristori. All these names are famous, but, judged by their actual artistic achievement, neither Mrs. Robinson nor Adelaide Neilson is entitled to a place from which Helen Faucit is excluded. Fame, however, does not depend entirely upon such biographical anthologies as these, which are intended for the general reader rather than the student. Both of Mr. Robins's volumes contain excellent reproductions of well-known portraits.

The 'Ellen Terry' of Clement Scott (Frederick A. Stokes Co.) is a prettily illustrated and charmingly printed little volume, and little else. Like other productions of the same author, it consists largely of rhapsody and miscellaneous reminiscence, in which Mr. Scott is concerned quite as much as his professed subject. The main incidents in the career of this charming actress are duly set down, with note of time and place, but the book is full of irrelevant padding of all kinds, and has a minimum of literary or critical value.

The 'John Drew' of Edward A. Dithmar, in the same series as the 'Ellen Terry,' is a work of a very different character. Mr. Dithmar, for many years the dramatic critic of the New York *Times*, has a wide and intimate knowledge of the theatre generally, and has been familiar with every phase of Mr. Drew's career from its outset. As might have been expected, he furnishes a thoroughly satisfactory bit of biography, in which the gradual artistic development of his subject is traced with accuracy, skill, and appreciation. Incidentally, the little volume is a tribute to the brilliant management of the late Augustin Daly. The reading matter is interspersed plentifully with portraits of Mr. Drew in many of his most popular parts.

'The Theatre and its People,' by Franklin Fyles (Doubleday, Page & Co.), is written for the great mass of the public which knows nothing about the theatre except what can be seen in front of the curtain. Necessarily, therefore, it contains a vast amount of what to more experienced persons is exceedingly elementary information. It expounds in detail all the mysteries of "behind the scenes," the construction of the stage, the various contrivances employed, and the various processes through which a new play is put between the first rehearsal and the first public performance. It furnishes, too, some interesting and instructive figures concerning the salaries of players and the profits of authors and managers. Mr. Fyles has done his work pretty thoroughly, although he might have written another chapter upon the elaborate machinery now used in the production of sensational melodrama. He touches the theatrical Trust business in somewhat gingerly fashion—being a playwright himself—and seems to think that on the whole it is rather beneficial than otherwise. What he says about its financial responsibility, its regular payment of salaries, etc., is doubtless true, but he overlooks the positive evils directly attributable to it—the destruction of healthy competition, the discouragement of native authors, and the abolition of the stock companies which were the schools of acting.

The Distribution of Wealth. A Theory of Wages, Interest, and Profits. By John Bates Clark. Macmillan Co. 1899.

The Economics of Distribution. By John A. Hobson. Macmillan Co. 1900.

Professor Clark's essay is one of the results of the ferment caused by Henry George's 'Progress and Poverty.' That vigorous writer fluttered the dove-cotes of the professors who regard Political Economy as a department of ethics. Some he converted; others he stimulated to search for some escape from his conclusions. Among the latter Professor Clark is to be included, and his studies have been so fruitful as to enable him to announce that the distribution of the income of society is in accordance with justice. Due allowance must be made for friction; but, theoretically at least, the distribution is controlled by a natural law which gives to every agent of production the amount of wealth which that agent produces. Wages equal that part of the product of industry which is traceable to the labor itself; and interest equals what is traceable to capital. Of course, these propositions are abstract; wages and interest are much affected by temporary influences and by bargaining. We must constantly remember that actual society is "dynamic," or changing, while the economist postulates a "static" or natural state; but this is true in every applied science.

Henry George's theorem was that so long as land is practically unlimited in supply, a laborer employed in manufacturing will command as much in the shape of wages as he could make by agriculture. When the land has passed into private ownership, the product of labor is measured by what it makes out of land which commands no rent; and wages are determined in this manner. If manufactures offer less in wages than men can earn by agriculture, laborers will go to the land. If they offer more, laborers will leave the land. This, Professor Clark calls "a theory of 'squatter sovereignty' over the labor market." He declares that it "puts the man in the shanty into a position that is so strategic as to enable him to dominate workmen of every class, to fix the amount of their wages, and so to control the level on which they live."

Such criticism as this is not very profound; nor is it judicious, in view of the fact that Professor Clark admits that this absurd theory embodies the same principle as his own. According to both theories, wages tend to equal what labor itself can produce; and the notion that the people who try to keep body and soul together by tilling worthless land "dominate workmen of every class," is no more absurd when given out by Henry George than when amplified by a professor of economics in good and regular standing. For Professor Clark considers that Henry George would have been nearly right had he furnished the laborers on worthless land with worthless implements to till the soil withal. It is only necessary to extend the field somewhat in order to obtain the true law of "marginal" labor. There is an "intensive margin" elsewhere than in agriculture; "it may be traced throughout the industrial system. Everywhere there is a line that it does not pay to pass in adding to the number of workers who are utilizing the really productive appliances of industry. Though a hundred men can sail a steamship, a hundred and five may sail it better. In that case, the five extra men are on the intensive margin of utilization of the steamship, and are virtually rent-free. Whatever the ship itself must pay to its owners, was paid when it was run by the original crew."

In order to apply this theory, it is necessary to assume that employers are influenced by other than pecuniary motives in hiring laborers. In actual life this assumption is correct enough, but it is hardly admissible when we are reasoning of the "static" condition of society. The hypothetical employer of the economists is a being who uses men and capital for the purpose of making a profit, and if he makes no profit from them he should dispense with them. On the other hand, the theory assumes a degree of equality, or "interchangeability," among laborers, which we do not find in practical life. However this may be, the theory requires this "zone of indifference," in order to give us the laws that "wages tend to equal the product of marginal labor," and that "the effective product of any workman must be equal to the absolute product of a man who is within the marginal zone." The corollaries are obvious that products on the zones of indifference of different employments tend toward uniformity; that a general zone of indifference exists in each industry; and that there is a similar zone in industry as a whole. The theory is very carefully elaborated, and is an interesting development of the "final" or "marginal" utility hypothesis. Whether to regard it as a *reductio ad absurdum* of that method of solving economic problems, or as a splendid illustration of its power, depends on the point of view of the reader.

Mr. Hobson accepts the same hypothesis, although with some modifications; but he comes to an entirely different conclusion from Professor Clark's. He applies to labor and capital the terminology and modes of measurement hitherto confined to land, and thus demonstrates that landlords are not sinners, economically, above other men; rather there is none that doeth good. Every one, practically, is in possession of some differential advantage, in receipt of some gain beyond what his services really produce. In all the bargaining and competition by which prices are established and the distribution of wealth effected, there are elements of compulsion which assign "forced gains" and other elements of "economic rent" to the buyers or the sellers. Hence there is a large fund, of the nature of monopoly and differential rents, which furnishes no stimulus to voluntary industrial energy. This fund, according to Mr. Hobson, can be taken for public service by taxation without injury to industry.

In this country, we must protest, the taking of property by taxation is by no means the same thing as taking it for the public service. Indeed, property so taken is distributed among the office-holders and politicians in accordance with the very principles which Mr. Hobson regards as producing injustice. In the city of Brooklyn there are several functionaries who enjoy emoluments computed to be from $30,000 to $80,000 a year; while nearly all their work is done by clerks, and our whole public service is full of such instances. The differences in the pay of public officers in England are enormous, and they do not tend to decrease. Probably Mr. Hobson would insist that when property is taken away from those who have

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obtained it without rendering an equivalent in social service, it must not be given to unworthy people; but if there is to be a compulsory redistribution of wealth, those who effect it will insist on having a liberal share of the spoils. There would be more "forced gains" in such a process than now prevail, and it is idle to maintain that such a revolution could take place without injury to industry. Nevertheless, we are bound to say that Mr. Hobson proves conclusively, according to the "marginal" hypothesis, that there is a fund of surplus profits as well as rents which might be confiscated without injustice, if legislators were incorruptible and intelligent. His criticism of the modern development of the theory of rent is extremely clever, and his own statement of it clear and well reasoned.

Shadowings. By Lafcadio Hearn. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 12mo, pp. 268.

In answer to a friend's desire for "a few more queer stories from the Japanese," Mr. Hearn sends forth these studies of the mind, art, and customs of his fellow-citizens—for Mr. Hearn is a naturalized subject of the Mikado. He has a sensitiveness to everything Japanese which reminds us of that of photographic plates set to catch an eclipse, while yet recording unseen and unsuspected wonders. To the details of life and thought in Japan Mr. Hearn's soul seems everywhere and at all times responsive. He catches in his eye and on his pen minute motes scarcely noticeable by the keen natives themselves.

In the first of his three groups of "Shadowings," entitled "Stories from Strange Books," he has condensed the substance of half a dozen of those cheap Japanese novels which, circulating all over the empire, are devoured by women and young people. These are all steeped in the teachings of Buddhism and surcharged with native aspirations, conceits, notions, superstitions, and horrors. The "Screen Maiden" and the "Corpse Rider" are especially characteristic. After her admirer's long vigil and fixity of thought before the figure of a maiden figured on a screen, the painted girl upon a paper background stepped out before him, spoke to him, served him with wine, and gave him her love. The space on the screen remained blank; but she stipulated that if he was unkind to her she should go back to the screen; otherwise, she pledged herself to him for "the time of seven existences." In the more gruesome tale, Japan is the land where "the last undying wish of a dying person for vengeance can burst asunder any tomb and rift the heaviest graveyard stone." The divorced woman, with ice-cold body and pulseless heart, but with no other signs of death, waited for the return of the man who had divorced her. He had to sit for a whole night upon her corpse, after which ordeal of black fear she released him from her revenge. In "The Sympathy of Benten," a young girl hangs a poem on love to the temple tree branch, and the goddess grants her wish for a husband. Through the lady-god's power, the young man lives with his girl's spirit a year before he is aware that his bride is a bodiless phantom. Finally, however, through the grace of the goddess, he is given the real maiden of flesh and blood. In the final story, a submarine being comes up out of the dragon kingdom under the waves, performs a good work (which eventuates in the union of lovers), leaves a casket of jewels, and returns with a plunge to his briny home.

In "Three Japanese Studies" Mr. Hearn rakes the meadow of Nippon for every wisp of sweet hay, and heaps up fragrance. He has studied well the old books which now, in this day of science and cosmopolitan interests, are given to the dusty corners of libraries: He tells us all about the Cicada and the literature devoted to this melodious insect, about which Japanese poets have written for a millennium. The illustrations of the book relate to this creature. Though there is wisdom with philosophy in the elect of the thousands of stanzas known, their burden seems rather sad. Incidentally, Mr. Hearn tells us that Pierre Loti is the world's greatest prose writer, while every page of his own composition shows how steeped in the spirit and how devoted to the form of the French literary impressionists he is.

A cyclopædic chapter of nearly sixty pages illuminates the theme of "Japanese Female Names." Notwithstanding that the majority of these refer to things beautiful to the eye, and "cause an æsthetic sensation," they were not given for æsthetic reasons. Many refer to longevity instead of beauty, others to moral qualities; not 15 per cent. being really æsthetic appellations implying physical charms or suggesting ideas of loveliness. There are two powerful reasons for this. Such names are given to the geisha and to women lower down in the moral world. Consequently, such names are vulgarized. Among the middle classes a very æsthetic name would not be in good taste, and among the poor hardly respectable. Still more potent is the fact that domestic virtues are more highly regarded than matters of beauty, and girls are selected not for their good looks, but for their domestic qualities.

In "Old Japanese Songs" we have what will delight especially those who have witnessed and heard the summer-night village dances in which millions of the people find joy. In circles, or in moving lines, with rhythmic motion of hands and feet, they recite the old stories, act the dramas, and sing the lullabys and threnodies which their fathers have handed down, or tell of love and fame, the miseries and joys of lovers and heroes. Or they sing the praises of virtues and virtuous characters, or repeat in onomatopes the songs of the fisherman, hunter, or of the playing girl and boy. These are finely rendered in English by one exquisitely sensitive to the real charms of Japan's civilization. The ball-play song, in which the girl with the battledore, as she counts up from one to ten, chants a brief stanza in between the counts, suggests our old song, "Be kind to thy father, be kind to thy mother," etc. Mr. Hearn thinks, by the way, that the moral training of Japanese girls produces "the very sweetest type of woman that this world has ever known."

The third or last division of the book is a phantasm in words concerning Mr. Hearn's own subjective self. He describes his dreams and "the peculiar horror that certain forms of Gothic architecture can inspire."

Our author uses his seven themes as but points of attachment for marvellous webs of airy fancy, morbid imaginings, lush rhetoric, and whatever else may be comprehended under the head of "Nightmare Touch." In the last paper, entitled "In a Pair of Eyes," the sparkle of language is like the drops of dew impearling the spider's gossamer in the grass. Excessively light and attenuated seems the author's thought, in this last group of his 'Shadowings,' even when his words are as "one soundless sheet lightning of the Infinite Memory."

The Metaphysic of Experience. By Shadworth H. Hodgson. Longmans, Green & Co.

The construction of a system of philosophy is always impressive as an intellectual feat calculated to awe the most skeptical. And when, as in this case, the process issues in four portly volumes, fit to adorn any bookcase and extending to nearly 2,000 pages, which represent, as the preface pathetically tells us, the constant preoccupation for eighteen years of a life-long student of philosophy, the voice of detraction is almost necessarily hushed in mute admiration of so stupendous an effort. Surely, one feels, while individual philosophers may come and have their little day and pass away, a subject which is capable of inspiring such devotion must needs be as enduring as the human race itself.

And yet intelligent comprehension is demanded of us as well as admiration, and comprehension involves reflection, which incites to criticism; and to criticism Mr. Hodgson's philosophy is no more impervious than any other. Indeed, upon examination, the impressiveness of Mr. Hodgson's performance is sensibly diminished. The system seems to dissolve itself into a conglomerate of points of view cemented together by reasonings which too often lack the clearness and strength demanded by the situation. It is not that the views in themselves are paradoxical, or indefensible, or unfamiliar, or devoid of truth and usefulness in their way and in their sphere. On the contrary, nothing is more striking about them than that they are all current in the air breathed by the philosophers of the day, and can boast of the support of notable names. Who has not come across such doctrines as these—that the proper method of philosophy is the analysis of experience; that a complete philosophy must eschew all assumptions; that conscious processes are not self-explanatory, but must be derived from the physiological processes which they accompany; that there is no causal efficacy in consciousness; that we have no perception of efficacy in causation (whence Mr. Hodgson infers that we should substitute the conception of a "real condition" for that of a cause); that Matter is an inexpugnable reality, but that a distinction must be made between its primary and its secondary qualities; that it is the condition of consciousness, but that nevertheless it and consciousness are disparate, and that so it cannot be said to explain why consciousness should be such as it is; that we must ask whence Matter came; that consequently the seen world ultimately depends for its explanation on the unseen; that this unseen power is God; that God's nature is unknowable, seeing that infinity and personality are incompatible; that our conscience imposes on us a moral law of duty; that our moral nature practically guarantees a deity whom the theoretic reason cannot reach? These are all views we find in Mr. Hodgson's volumes, which indeed owe their originality (or anomaly) largely to the fact of their peaceful coexistence.

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The difficulty lies in fitting them all together. It would be hazardous to affirm that Mr. Hodgson has not succeeded in doing this, but it may safely be asserted that in too many cases he has not succeeded in making either their compatibility manifest or his arguments convincing.

To indicate some of these difficulties more precisely. Mr. Hodgson distinguishes his own standpoint from the Kantian epistemology whose *a-priori* implications of the possibility of knowledge he has, not unreasonably, thrown over. But though he has thereby lightened his ship, his own "analysis of experience" (which he calls metaphysic) coincides with Kant's in the more fundamental point of being also an attempt to determine the nature of knowledge independently of the actual facts of psychological observation. He is continually telling us that his analysis of the simplest datum of experience (he chooses to start with the hearing of a single musical note), and the gradual introduction of complications until our actually experienced consciousness is reached, is not to be taken as anything actually occurring or proceeding *in rerum natura*. But if his account, like Kant's, is not an actual psychological fact, what is it? How can it be more than an arbitrary manipulation of imaginary abstractions, whereof there may be any number, each accounting for experience after its own fashion and on its own assumptions? And how can we decide between them, once we have left the firm ground of psychological fact, unless it be by the pleasing character of the results or by æsthetic tests of symmetry and simplicity? In which case, what will be the prospects of a philosophy which comes to the unalluring conclusion (iv., p. 385) that the world-problem not only is not completely soluble, but cannot even be conceived as completely soluble?

In reality, however, the psychological facts never can be set aside. They form an ineradicable factor in all epistemological argumentation, which, despite itself, is continually lapsing into descriptions of historical occurrences. And so the actual nature of his own mature mind is a *de-facto* presupposition of Mr. Hodgson's analysis also, and disposes of his claim to have dispensed with all assumptions. Would it not be better to avow this, and to admit that all such reflections must inevitably start from the mind as it now is?

Again, Mr. Hodgson shares with Kant the prejudice that the soundness of an analysis of knowledge can be forecast *a priori* and without waiting to see how it works in dealing with the concrete material known. But does not this assumption, that we can begin independently with a theory of knowledge, make the original character of our theory decisive of its validity, and run entirely counter to our experience in the case of other theories, all of which seem to be begotten originally in error, and to be corrected gradually into some semblance of truth?

In his theory of knowledge, then, Mr. Hodgson is still under the spell of Kant, as also in his appeal to the practical reason to give a religious tone to the agnostic conclusions of the speculative reason. Nor can it be said that his restatement of this famous, but thoroughly unsatisfactory, doctrine makes any substantial improvement on Kant. Like the latter, he does not even see to it that the practical reason should not be asked to guarantee a conception of deity which is wholly unfit for moral purposes. In his treatment of space and time, however, Mr. Hodgson is Newtonian; and his remarks about the unknowableness of the unseen world have a curiously Spencerian ring.

But the chief *crux* in his treatise, perhaps, is his account of Matter. It is no slight feat for a philosophy which starts from a recognition that all experience is in consciousness, to reach a conception of Matter which justifies the very materialistic language which prevails in three and a half of Mr. Hodgson's volumes. No wonder the derivation of Matter is wrapped in obscurity. It would seem, however (i., p. 404) that, after gracefully yielding up the secondary qualities of Matter, Mr. Hodgson finds himself forced to the conception that the "immediate perception of touch and pressure are also perceptions of properties or attributes of Matter, called hardness and resistance, which are not themselves perceptions, but objects of perception, existing in Matter independently of whether they are perceived or not." Yet finally materialism is refuted, because it turns out that Matter, though equal to explaining consciousness, cannot explain itself, and requires a "real condition," immaterial and in the unseen world, to sustain it. The obvious objection that, if so, Matter becomes otiose and need not be interpolated between the perceptions and the ultimate "real condition," does not seem to have suggested itself to Mr. Hodgson.

This is not, however, the only point on which it is hard to disentangle his full doctrine. For though his language is laudably free from needless technicalities, his scientific conscientiousness leads him into a very involved style, which inserts saving clauses in saving clauses to a terrible extent. This and the extensive repetitions produce an unfortunate impression that the author is doing his thinking aloud *coram populo*, and renders it unlikely that he will obtain for his present effort the hearing which his enthusiasm deserves. He should cut his four volumes down to one, and supply also an adequate analysis of the argument (mere marginal headings of sections are of very little use when the sections extend to sixty pages!). And then we hope he will also obliterate the curious slip (ii., p. 95) which makes the angles of a triangle equal to *three* right angles!

The Kingdom of the Yellow Robe. By Ernest Young. New Amsterdam Book Co. 12mo, pp. 399.

In 1885 Sir Ernest Satow, now British Minister in China, while Consul-General at Bangkok, declared, after making a minute survey of the literature relating to the country, that there was still room for a good book on Siam. Having this dictum in view, we have watched during the past decade for what was to be *the* book on Siam. We still watch, wait, and hope.

Mr. Ernest Young, an English gentleman, who has produced the present volume, was for some time connected with the Siamese Department of Education. He lived in Bangkok, carefully observing the domestic and religious rites and ceremonies of the Siamese. Besides being keenly alert and interested, he made good use of his photographic apparatus, and his book is illustrated, but he has evidently travelled very little in the country, and one must not expect in this work a general description either of the land or of its inhabitants. Nor do his grammar and style betray a scholar. He makes no undue pretensions, however, and has been much indebted to Mr. Alabaster, who wrote that excellent work on Buddhism, 'The Wheel of the Law,' and to Capt. Gerini, and to the files of the *Siam Repository*, a weekly periodical which unfortunately ceased publication long ago. Without an index, the matter is well arranged under twenty chapters. About half of the work treats of social and the other half of religious life in Siam.

How long there have been inhabitants in the peninsula of Siam no one knows, but, since the destruction of Ayuthia in 1767, Bangkok has been the capital. Although some attempt has been made to disentangle from a mass of myths and traditions a connected story, yet the real history of the "Kingdom of the Free" covers little more than two centuries. In recent years, largely through the stimulus of American teachers and intelligent Englishmen, but probably most of all because of the contagious example of Japan, the Siamese have come to something like a national consciousness. The Government has been unified. The sovereign has voluntarily limited his prerogative, and now shares legislative functions with a large cabinet, or council of ministers, who seek the advice and assistance of expert natives and foreigners. Education on Western models has been introduced, the potencies of steam and electricity have been liberally drawn upon, reforms in the habits and customs of the people have been carried out, and there are many new evidences of change in tastes, opinions, and customs. Some of the phenomena of transition are amusing enough, and fortunately Mr. Young has a sense of humor that lightens up his pages. Though often sarcastic and patronizing, he is yet able to see clearly that morality is largely a matter of climate, and that comparisons may easily become odious. In cold countries, he argues, a man who is not born to wealth must either work or starve. Hence arise enterprise, prosperity, and civilization, but where warmth and fertility make death by either freezing or starvation next to impossible, it is no wonder that people like the Siamese do not love work. Nor is it exactly fair to call them lazy. Intense conservatism cannot be changed in a moment, nor must one be too severe upon the chewers of the betel-nut for not having in their houses quite the cleanliness of the Dutch.

Mr. Young, therefore, while letting the ages of evolution proceed, leaves to others the task of estimating the intrinsic value of Siam's moral and social condition, and pictures before us in lively style the odd ways of the people. "Isa-kee! Isa-kee!" is a queer sound often heard in Bangkok. It is the cry of the pedestrian vendor of a mess of half-frozen slush and sugar which stands to the native taste and ear as ice-cream. As the native small boys let it slide down their throats, they cry to each other, "How it burns!" Instead of the traditional Hume-like argument against "miracles" and the once royal skepticism concerning America's frozen rivers, the natives now gladly import and use "hard water." One-half of the inhabitants of Siam, it is believed by the author, are Chinese. These live in villages

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throughout the country, and are industrious and prosperous, for while the natives shirk hard manual labor, the Chinaman is only too glad of the job. He marries usually a Siamese woman, and their children make excellent subjects, as they possess both the natural brightness of the mother and the industry of the father. The half-breed must become naturalized or else pay a tax of about a quarter of a dollar a year. The native policeman mightily enjoys leading Chinamen up to the tax office to settle. The Japanese jin-riki-sha has become the chief vehicle. Until of late, the only roads through the country were those of nature's providing, rivers and streams, but the necessities of commerce have compelled ways of communication by land. Rice is the chief food of the country, and irrigation is common, but agricultural implements are yet of the rudest sort. The water buffalo is the chief of the most valued animals, except, of course, the white elephants or the apology in dirty red for such, which are kept at the public expense. In the northern part of the country the teakwood forests are being rapidly cut down, and the gravest results are apprehended on account of this deforestation.

Mr. Young gives what must be considered something like a fair account of Siamese religion, which in form is that of orthodox, Southern, pure, or undeveloped Buddhism, in contrast to the florid and highly developed form of northern Asia. It seems to be in a very passive and stagnant state. He tells us, not in a very connected but rather desultory way, about the various reforms introduced of late years, which show how an intelligent sovereign, backed by earnest men, is trying to raise up an Oriental nation out of the conservatism of ages into the better life of men who have thoughts and interests higher than the mere routine of daily life, and akin to those not of one nation but of the whole race.

Dido: An Epic Tragedy. By F. J. Miller and J. R. Nelson. Silver, Burdett & Co.

Old schoolboys (and others, too) will be interested in Virgil dramatized under the above title. To make up the dialogue, the appropriate lines from the 'Æneid' are selected and translated or paraphrased. There are abundant stage directions in the highest style of the art, with diagrams and indications of costume and scenery. The following, for example, ought to be enough to tempt Burne-Jones or Sir Henry Irving:

"A fragrant nook on Mount Ida. Across the stage at the first wing a low, broad marble wall, forming one end of a colonnade which leads back to an arch through which the distant sea is visible. The columns at the first wing and the wall between them are over-clambered by a flowering vine, which has strewn its delicate yellow petals over the wall and the marble floor before it. Behind the wall a garden of brilliant blossoms, with a path leading through it to the arch in the background. There is the pleasant sound of falling water."

Then there are drawings from ancient vases, besides a number of incidental lyrics set to music, with the score in extenso. The material is skilfully disposed, and the version is an interesting one. If only the matter of scenery and setting could be managed, some college might find it feasible and profitable to attempt its dramatic presentation. The measure chosen is a verse rare in English, the unrhymed Alexandrine. Although the author manages well his pauses and the rhetoric of his line, it is not a type of verse which can be said to succeed well in English. There are various reasons for this, but the test, of course, is in the effect. By exception, such cadences as these may satisfy the ear:

"Time, only time, I ask, a little space of rest
From this mad grief, till Fortune give me fortitude,
And teach me how to bear my woe."

But how is it when run-on effects attack the norm of the verse, and we have such lines as these?

"How like Diana when she leads her bands, by swift
Eurotas, or on Cynthus green, while round her press
A thousand graceful creatures of the wood; but she,
With shoulder quiver-girt, a very goddess moves
With stately tread among the lesser beings of
Her train. To such an one I liken yonder queen."

It can hardly be said that the Alexandrine is a satisfactory modern analogue of the classical hexameter.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adderley, James. Francis: The Little Poor Man of Assisi. London: Edward Arnold. 3s. 6d.
Baker, J. H. Education and Life. Longmans, Green & Co.
Barbour, A. M. That Mainwaring Affair. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Bellamy, Edward. The Duke of Stockbridge. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
Benson, B. K. Who Goes There? Macmillan. $1.50.
Blanchard, Amy E. Her Very Best. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Bridgeman, L. J. Mother Wild Goose and her Wild Beast Show. Boston: H. M. Caldwell Co.
Casaubon, Meric. Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, the Roman Emperor: His Meditations. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Charles, R. H. The Ascension of Isaiah. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.60.
Cobb, Thomas. Scruples. John Lane. $1.25.
Conrad, Joseph. Lord Jim. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.50.
Crane, Stephen. Great Battles of the World. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Crawford, F. Marion. In the Palace of the King. Macmillan. $1.50.
Creswick, Paul. In Alfred's Days. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.50.
Crockett, S. R. The Stickit Minister's Wooing. New ed. Doubleday & McClure Co. $1.50.
De Maulde la Clavière, R. The Women of the Renaissance: A Study of Feminism. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Detmold, M. and E. Pictures from Birdland. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.
Eissler, M. The Metallurgy of Gold. London: Crosby Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $7.50.
Elizabeth and her German Garden, and The Solitary Summer. New ill. ed. 2 vols. $2.50 each.
Emerson, Ralph Waldo. Friendship and Love. H. M. Caldwell Co.
Everett-Green, Evelyn. Bruno and Bimba. London: Ernest Nister; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Farmiloe, Edith. Piccalilli. London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Fitz-Gerald, S. J. A. Stories of Famous Songs. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Forman, L. L. Selections from Plato. Macmillan. $1.90.
Foster, R. F. Foster's Bridge Manual. Brentano.
Fox, A. W. A Book of Bachelors. London: Archibald, Constable & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $5.
Geddie, John. Romantic Edinburgh. London: Sands & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Gomme, G. L. The Princess's Story-Book. London: Archibald, Constable & Co.; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Gordon, Samuel. Sons of the Covenant. Philadelphia: The Jewish Publication Society of America.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. VI. Harvard University.
Hewlett, Maurice. The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay. Macmillan. $1.50.
Hillier, Alfred. Tuberculosis. Cassell & Co. $1.25.
Hurll, E. M. Sir Joshua Reynolds. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75 cents.
King, Charles. Ray's Daughter: A Story of Manila. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Lang, Andrew. The Grey Fairy Book. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Le Queux, William. The Sign of the Seven Sins. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Litchfield, Grace Denio. The Moving Finger Writes. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Lockhart, J. G. Memoirs of Sir Walter Scott. Vols. III., IV., and V. Macmillan.
Matheson, Annie. Snowflakes and Snowdrops. London: R. Brimley Johnson. 4s. 6d.
Matteson, Estelle L. Phryne. Stiletto Pub. Co.
Melville, Herman. (1) Typee: A Real Romance of the South Sea; (2) Moby Dick, or the White Whale; (3) White-Jacket, or the World in a Man-of-War; (4) Omoo: A Narrative of Adventures in the South Sea. Boston: Dana Estes & Co.
Miller, J. R. The Golden Gate of Prayer. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
Münsterberg, Hugo. Grundzüge der Psychologie. Leipzig: Johann Ambrosius Barth. 12 marks.
Neilson, Frances. Madame Bohemia. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
"Ouida." Critical Studies. Cassell & Co. $2.
Painter, F. V. N. Lyrical Vignettes. Boston: Sibley & Ducker.
Peters, M. C. Wit and Wisdom of the Talmud. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.
Pidgin, C. F. Quincy Adams Sawyer. Boston: C. M. Clark Pub. Co. $1.50.
Porter, Jane. The Scottish Chiefs. New ed. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50.
Presbrey, Frank. Memories of Vacation Days. Redfield Bros. 50 cents.
Putnam's Library of Standard Literature: (1) La Commedia di Dante Alighieri; (2) The History of the Life of Thomas Ellwood; (3) The Memoirs of the Life of Edward Gibbon; (4) The Early Poems of Alfred Lord Tennyson. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75 each.
Rayner, Emma. Visiting the Sin. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.50.
Selous, F. C. Sport and Travel: East and West. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Eleanor. 2 vols. Harpers.
Wolfe, T. F. Literary Rambles. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Women of the Bible. Harpers.

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